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18 July 1977

TRANSLATIONS ON EASTERN EUROPE
POLITICAL, SOCIOLOGICAL, AND MILITARY AFFAIRS
No. 1418

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INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

CEAUSESCU ADDRESSES BUCHAREST DINNER HONORING HUSAK VISIT

Bucharest SCINTEIA in Romanian 23 Jun 77 pp 1, 3 AU

[Toast by Romanian President Nicolae Ceausescu at official dinner in honor of CSSR President Gustav Husak, on 22 June, in Bucharest]

[Text] Dear Comrade Husak, dear comrades and friends: On behalf of the RCP Central Committee, the State Council, the government and myself personally, I would like to address warm greetings and best wishes to you, dear Comrade Husak, and to the other comrades of the CSSR party-state delegation.

Your visit to our country is an expression of good relations between the RCP and the CPCZ and between our countries and peoples, who, in close cooperation, are successfully building the new system on the soil of their fatherland.

I would like to stress with satisfaction that Romanian-CSSR economic relations are developing smoothly and that there are broad opportunities for these relations to increasingly expand in the future. During the 1971-1975 Five-Year Plan the volume of economic exchanges increased 1.6 times compared with the previous Five-Year Plan. By 1980, in keeping with provisions of existing agreements, these exchanges will increase by about 42 percent. There are prospects for particularly intensifying production sharing in a number of decisive fields for the technological progress of our countries, such as machine building, the chemical industry, control mechanisms, automation elements, and so forth.

We know and rejoice at the friendly Czechoslovak people's successes, under the leadership of the CPCZ and its Central Committee headed by Comrade Husak, in building socialism and insuring the country's overall socioeconomic development. As sincere friends, we wish the Czechoslovak people new successes along this road and increasingly important achievements in fulfilling the 15th CPCZ Congress targets.

During the visit you will have the opportunity to acquaint yourselves with some aspects of the Romanian people's life and concerns and of their activities in building the comprehensively developed socialist society and insuring the country's progress toward communism. In the first year of the Five-Year Plan as well as in the nearly 6 months of the current year, we have attained

a high industrial development rate of 11.5 percent. Last year we attained the largest agricultural production in the country's entire history. Of course, all these achievements are the outcome of the firm implementation of our party policy, which gives priority to insuring the steadfast progress of the economy, science and culture and guarantees the continuous growth of the material and intellectual well-being of all citizens. Not long ago, our party drew up a broad program for additionally increasing the incomes of all categories of working people and markedly raising the living standard of the population.

We are also taking action to perfect the organization and leadership of society; to promote socialist principles of work and life in the entire social life; to insure conditions for the active participation of all citizens, regardless of nationality, in leading the country; and to continuously expand socialist democracy, an essential prerequisite for successfully building the comprehensively developed socialist society. We believe that the successes we achieve in the fatherland's socioeconomic development and in the construction of the new system, as well as the successes achieved by the CSSR and the peoples of other socialist states, make an important contribution to the cause of socialism, progress and peace in the world.

Dear comrades, Romania firmly places the strengthening of friendship, solidarity and multilateral cooperation with all socialist countries at the center of its foreign activity. Along with other CEMA member states, we are actively contributing to fulfilling the comprehensive program, in order to insure the comprehensive progress of each state's national economy, to equalize development levels and to strengthen the forces of socialism.

We are also taking action to develop relations of solidarity and cooperation with the developing countries, nonaligned countries and all peoples embarking upon the road of free and independent socioeconomic development.

In the spirit of peaceful coexistence, Romania promotes economic, scientific-technical relations with all states, regardless of social system, and is intensifying its participation in the international division of labor and in the world exchange of values. Our country bases all its foreign relations on principles of full equality of rights, respect for national independence and sovereignty, noninterference in domestic affairs, mutual advantage and nonuse of force or the threat of force. We militate to insure that these principles firmly assert themselves in international life.

We are particularly concerned with implementing the principles included in the Helsinki documents. Along these lines, we want the Belgrade meeting to give new and strong impetus to the achievement of the provisions of the Helsinki final document, which represent a single whole, both as regards the unhampered development of economic, scientific-technical, cultural and other cooperation and particularly the resolute transition to efficient military disengagement measures in Europe, without which one cannot talk about real security and peace. Along these lines, we believe that the proposals made by the Warsaw Pact socialist member states and adopted at last autumn's Bucharest meeting, is a good basis for cooperation between our countries to achieve security and cooperation in Europe.

Although there has been much talk about disarmament in recent years, the armaments race has continued to assume greater proportions, becoming an ever heavier burden for the peoples and increasing the danger of new destructive wars. That is why we consider that everything possible should be done--before it is too late--to proceed to disarmament, primarily nuclear disarmament. We resolutely speak out for adopting concrete measures to put an end to the armaments race, to reduce military expenditure and armed forces, to abolish blocs and military bases and to bring about the withdrawal of foreign troops from territories of other states; we also speak out for other measures designed to make a contribution to strengthening detente, cooperation and peace.

One of the most urgent requirements of the contemporary age is to eliminate underdevelopment and the world's division into rich and poor countries, which is a consequence of the imperialist, colonialist and neocolonialist policy. Along these lines we believe it necessary to take active action, in close cooperation, to establish a new international economic order, which will insure equitable cooperation between states, the more rapid progress of each people and particularly of those lagging behind and their general access to the achievements of modern science and technology.

The complex problems of the current international life require the active participation on equal footing of all states regardless of their size and social system--particularly of small and medium-sized countries, developing countries and nonaligned states, which are directly interested in establishing a climate of understanding and equitable cooperation--in solving these problems. Along these lines, we speak out for increasing the role of the United Nations and other international bodies, which offer an adequate organizational framework for the effective participation of all states in discussing problems and promoting peace, detente and cooperation on our planet.

Esteemed comrade and friends, We value highly the cooperation between our parties and countries, both on the bilateral and international planes, and we particularly appreciate your important role, Comrade Husak, in strengthening the Romanian-CSSR friendship and cooperation.

I would like to express once more the conviction that your visit, the talks we will hold and the agreements we will reach will increasingly strengthen friendship, solidarity and cooperation between our countries, parties and peoples and will develop economic, scientific-technical, cultural and other exchanges as well as our friendly cooperation in international life, in the interests of the cause of socialism, peace and cooperation in the world.

With these thoughts, I propose we raise our glasses: To friendship and cooperation between our parties, countries and peoples! To the well-being and happiness of the friendly Czechoslovak people!

To the health of Comrade Gustav Husak, general secretary of the CPCZ Central Committee and CSSR President!

To the health of all Czechoslovak comrades present here! To your health, everyone!

For cooperation and peace throughout the world! (applause)

CSO 2700

INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

BRIEFS

NEW HUNGARIAN-YUGOSLAV STATION--A new border crossing station was dedicated in the western part of the country in Vas county at Bajnsenye. Increasing traffic necessitated the establishment of the border station. It cost 10 million forints and was built in the style of stations in the guarded area and is richly decorated with wood detail. The building was presented by Gyorgy Gonda, the Vas County council head to Janos Somogyvari, the deputy commander of the Customs and Internal Revenue police. Participants of the dedication were Ferenc Czirak, the Vas County party secretary and Rudolf Csacsinovics, the vice chairman of the Slovene government. [Text] [Budapest MAGYAR HIRLAP in Hungarian 9 July 77 p 5]

CSO: 2500

ALBANIA

BRIEFS

DELEGATION TO CHINA--A delegation from Radio-Television of the People's Socialist Republic of Albania, headed by the director general of Radio-Television, Cajup Rusmali, left yesterday for the People's Republic of China. At Rinas Airport, the delegation was seen off by the deputy minister of education and culture, Anastas Kondo, the deputy director general of Radio-Television, Xhabir Manxhelaku, the deputy director of the Albanian Telegraph Agency, Kozma Beqari, the deputy director of the First Directorate in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Shpresa Fuga, and others. The charge d'affaires ad interim of the embassy of the People's Republic of China in Albania, Han Po, also came to see off the delegation. [Text] [Tirana BASHKIMI in Albanian 3 Jul 77 p 1]

CSO: 2100

BULGARIA

REGULATION DEFINING ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION COMMITTEE TASKS

Sofia DURZHAVEN VESTNIK in Bulgarian 24 Jun 77 pp 545-548

[Council of Ministers regulation on the functions and tasks of the Environmental Protection Committee of the Council of Ministers (adopted with Council of Ministers Letter No 89 of 1976)]

[Text] Chapter 1

General Stipulations

Article 1. The Environmental Protection Committee of the Council of Ministers is an autonomous control organ of the Council of Ministers with a functional competence which, on the basis of the program-target and comprehensive approach and within the framework of its rights, shall implement the policy of the state on matters of the protection and reproduction of the natural environment and shall guide, coordinate, and control the comprehensive utilization of water resources.

Article 2. (1) State organs, organizations, and officials shall be required to assist the Environmental Protection Committee organs in the exercise of their control activities.

(2) Irrespective of their affiliation, by request of the Environmental Protection Committee and its organs, the scientific research institutes and laboratories of enterprises and organizations shall give priority to analyses and studies of a control-analytical nature in connection with the committee's investigations.

Article 3. The executive committees of okrug and city people's councils shall assist the Environmental Protection Committee organs in their activities and, in coordination with them, shall implement their Environmental protection measures.

Article 4. The Investigations conducted by the Environmental Protection Committee organs in sites of a classified nature shall be conducted in accordance with the stipulations governing the protection of state secrets and, in facilities of the Ministry of National Defense and Ministry of Internal Affairs, also with the agreement of the respective ministries.

Article 5. In the course of its activities the Environmental Protection Committee shall apply the state-social principle and shall rely both on the state authorities and the nationwide movement for environmental protection.

Chapter 2

Basic Tasks

Article 6. The Environmental Protection Committee shall have the following basic tasks:

1. To organize and coordinate the elaboration of a legal system for environmental protection; to coordinate and control the execution of the national program for environmental protection and for the comprehensive utilization of water resources; to provide specialized control over environmental protection; to coordinate and control the implementation of legal acts and decisions passed by the National Assembly, State Council, and Council of Ministers on problems related to the preservation, improvement, and restoration of the environment and the rational utilization of water resources;
2. To control and coordinate the implementation of measures aimed at the protection of the atmosphere, water, soil, landscape, and natural projects and their purification from pollution, protection of natural vegetal and animal resources, and of the soil from erosion and destruction, and the treatment and utilization of industrial, agriculture, domestic, and other refuse, the struggle against noise and vibration outside the working environment, and the preservation of the natural environment in the utilization of natural resources. To exercise preventive control in order to prevent new pollution;
3. To draw up the water resource balances of the country and allocate the waters of the complex dams and to coordinate and control the activities related to the rational utilization of water resources and the steady and normal operation of installations for the treatment of sewage waters, and to manage the study and utilization of subsoil waters;
4. To coordinate the formulation of plans and comprehensive-target programs for environmental protection drawn up by ministries and other departments and participate in the drafting of the section entitled "Basic Tasks for the Preservation and Restoration of the Environment" of the unified plan for the socioeconomic development of the country;

5. To control and help ministries and other departments and executive committees of okrug people's councils to insure the most effective utilization of allocated environmental protection funds;
6. To organize the structuring, operating, and development of the unified national system for observation of and information about the condition of the natural environment, and the national automated control system, and the optimal utilization and protection of the purity of water resources;
7. To elaborate together with ministries and other departments and coordinate their work for the elaboration and approval of norms and stipulations governing admissible harmless quantities of released pollutants in the air, water, soil, and environment as a result of various industrial, agricultural, and other activities, as well as norms on noise and vibrations outside the working environment, and to control their observance;
8. Together with the Committee for Science, Technical Progress, and Higher Education and the Bulgarian Academy of Sciences, to coordinate and control scientific research and design activities related to environmental protection, the development and application of essentially new technologies insuring pollution-free production, and the rational utilization of natural resources;
9. To study the experience of the Soviet Union and the other advanced countries in the preservation of the natural environment and the comprehensive and rational utilization of water resources, and to assist in the fast and extensive use in our country of the best achievements in that area;
10. To represent the government of the Bulgarian People's Republic in the specialized CEMA organs and other international organizations on matters related to the preservation, reproduction, and improvement of the environment and the comprehensive utilization of water resources;
11. To organize and coordinate the work on the implementation of obligations undertaken by our country along the line of CEMA as well as the other international obligations related to the protection of the environment and the rational utilization of water resources;
12. In coordination with ministries and other departments to formulate draft laws on matters related to the protection, reproduction, and improvement of the environment and the rational utilization of water resources.

Chapter 3

Organs of the Environmental Protection Committee

Article 7. (1) The rayon environmental protection inspectorates shall be the organs of the Environmental Protection Committee.

(2) The rayon environmental protection inspectorates shall operate on the basis of a directive approved by the chairman of the Environmental Protection Committee.

Article 8. (1) The state-social principle of administration of activities related to environmental protection shall be provided by an Environmental Protection Council and a Water Resources Council as auxiliary organs of the committee, consisting of representatives of ministries, departments, and public organizations, noted scientists, specialists, and others. The chairman of the Environmental Protection Committee shall be the chairman of these councils as well. The membership of these organs shall be determined by a deputy chairman of the Council of Ministers.

(2) The councils shall submit suggestions on resolving problems related to the protection and reproduction of the environment and the comprehensive utilization of water resources; they shall discuss and issue opinions on drafted plans for forecasts, concepts, programs, and the "Preservation and Reproduction of the Environment" section of the unified plan for the socio-economic development of the country.

(3) The Environmental Protection Council and the Council on Water Resources shall participate in discussions of information supplied by individual ministries, other departments, executive committees of okrug people's councils, and other organizations on the implementation of the plans and programs for the preservation and reproduction of the environment and the comprehensive utilization of water resources.

Article 9. The environmental protection national committee of the National Council of the Fatherland Front and the okrug, city, and village social committees for environmental protection of the respective Fatherland Front committees shall provide social assistance to and help the Environmental Protection Committee and its organs in the implementation of their tasks.

Chapter 4

Rights and Obligations of the Environmental Protection Committee and its Organs

Article 10. (1) The Environmental Protection Committee shall control the execution of environmental protection legislation, issue mandatory prescriptions on environmental protection from pollution and harm, and impose penalties on violators in cases stipulated by the law.

(2) The Environmental Protection Committee and its organs shall maintain close relations with the state and people's control organs. They shall coordinate their control activities with them and seek their assistance in the implementation of such activities.

(3) The Environmental Protection Committee and its organs shall immediately inform the respective prosecutor's office organ should they establish that crimes related to damage to the environment have been committed.

Article 11. Implementing their control activities the Environmental Protection Committee organs shall identify themselves by presenting official cards or an order issued for the purpose.

Article 12. The Environmental Protection Committee shall exercise specialized control over and assist in:

1. The proper and expedient utilization of vegetation protection facilities;
2. The accelerated use of integral and biological struggle against crop- and forest-harming agents and the observance of established scientific norms and requirements in the application of mineral and natural fertilizers and the use of herbicides;
3. The protection of the environment from damages and its rational utilization and enrichment and recultivation of degraded landscapes;
4. The protection, restoration, enrichment, and optimal utilization of the genetic stock with a view to preserving the ecological balance of the environment;
5. The preservation and management of protected natural sites;
6. The implementation of plans and programs for:
 - a. The building of treatment installations;
 - b. The domestic production or importation of treatment equipment and facilities;
 - c. The building of antierosion systems and the implementation of agro-technical antierosion measures;
 - d. The recultivation of areas disturbed by strip mining, quarries, and others, and the draining of swamped areas;
7. The implementation of water resource measures aimed at the comprehensive utilization and preservation of the country's water resources;

8. The proper exploitation and effective operation of installed treatment facilities;

9. Rendering harmless and utilizing industrial, agricultural, consumer, and other waste;

10. The protection from pollution with petroleum, petroleum products, and other harmful substances of the Black Sea and the Danube River.

Article 13. The Environmental Protection Committee shall organize and coordinate the participation of our country in international cooperation in the field of environmental protection and comprehensive utilization of water resources. To this effect it shall:

1. Organize and coordinate the implementation of the obligations assumed by the Bulgarian People's Republic based on the "General Expanded Program for Cooperation Among CEMA-Member Countries and Yugoslavia in the Field of the Preservation and Improvement of the Environment and the Related Rational Utilization of Natural Resources;"

2. Organize and coordinate the implementation of the obligations assumed by the Bulgarian People's Republic based on the Complex CEMA Program for Cooperation in the Field of Water Resources along the line of the Conference of Heads of Water Resource Organs of CEMA-member Countries;

3. Organize, coordinate, and, together with the respective departments and organizations, engage in multilateral and bilateral cooperation with the Soviet Union and the other countries for the preservation of the environment and the comprehensive utilization of water resources.

Article 14. In the course of the implementation of its assignments the Environmental Protection Committee has the right to demand of the respective departments and organizations the necessary information related to the preservation, reproduction, and improvement of the environment and the rational utilization of natural resources.

Article 15. With the agreement of the respective ministries, other departments, enterprises, organizations, higher educational institutions, and institutes the Environmental Protection Committee may recruit scientific workers and specialists to work on individual problems in the field of the preservation, reproduction, and improvement of the environment and in controlling the protection of the environment.

Article 16. The Environmental Protection Committee shall control the observance of stipulations related to the protection and restoration of the natural environment before capital construction financing has been made available for various projects. Should such requirements be violated the committee shall submit a suggestion to the Council of Ministers that financing not be opened or that construction be stopped.

Article 17. (1) Through its representatives the Environmental Protection Committee shall participate in the acceptance and delivery of completed projects which may pollute or disturb the condition of the environment; in the case of nonfulfillment of planned projects for environmental protection it shall ban their commissioning for regular operations until the respective requirements have been met.

(2) The Environmental Protection Committee and its organs shall participate in the allocation of sites for the construction of projects which pollute or harm the environment.

Article 18. (1) The Environmental Protection Committee shall stop the production activities of enterprises which violate stipulated admissible norms governing the pollution and harming of the environment until the normal work of their treatment installations has been secured.

(2) The Environmental Protection Committee shall issue mandatory instructions to enterprises to convert for a specific period of time to a corresponding production system which would prevent environmental harm, based on the forecasts of the Unified National System for the Observation of and Information on the Condition of the Natural Environment.

Article 19. Together with the interested departments the Environmental Protection Committee shall formulate and keep up to date the country's unified water resources plan, water resources record of main water resource stocks, and the country's detailed hydrogeological map, and shall coordinate hydrological and hydrogeological studies. To this effect:

1. Together with interested ministries and other departments, it shall formulate annual and long-term plans for the comprehensive study and utilization of water resources for residential and industrial water supplies, irrigation, and electric power production;
2. It shall organize, conduct, and control hydrological, meteorological, water resources and laboratory observations, measurements, and studies of waters in complex and big dams and observe erosion processes in the course of the collection of such waters;
3. It shall elaborate and approve system plans-schedules for the utilization of the waters of complex dams and control their implementation by the respective water users;
4. It shall issue permits for water utilization and damming of sewage waters and for construction and extraction of quarry materials in river beds.

Article 20. (1) In coordination with the National Committee for Environmental Protection, the Environmental Protection Committee shall formulate, suggest, and control the application of a system of moral and material

incentives for the effective protection of the environment in the study, design, construction, maintenance, and exploitation of treatment installations, and the development and utilization of new technologies insuring wasteless production and the related effective utilization of raw and other materials.

(2) Together with the National Environmental Protection Committee, the Dimitrov Communist Youth Union, the Bulgarian trade unions, and other public organizations and institutions, the Environmental Protection Committee shall organize a competition for environmental protection.

(3) The chairman of the Environmental Protection Committee shall offer public thanks and shall reward or submit for the awarding of distinctions and rewards the names of collectives and individuals for high achievements in the field of environmental protection and comprehensive utilization of water resources.

(4) Together with the National Environmental Protection Committee of the National Council of the Fatherland Front, the Ministry of Public Education, the Dimitrov Communist Youth Union, the Bulgarian trade unions, the Bulgarian Tourist Union, the Hunting and Fishing Union, and the other social organizations the Environmental Protection Committee shall formulate and implement programs for social supervision and educational and propaganda activities for the preservation and reproduction of the environment; it shall be in direct contact with mass information media.

Article 21. The decisions of the Environmental Protection Committee taken within the framework of its competence shall be binding to ministries, other departments, executive committees of okrug people's councils, and economic and other organizations and individuals. The committee's decisions may be annulled only by decision of the Council of Ministers.

5003

CSO: 2200

SOCIALIST ACADEMY IS 25 YEARS OLD

Prague TVORBA in Czech No 22, 1 Jun 77 pp 3-4

[Interview with representatives of the Socialist Academy by TVORBA staff writer Jan Bartak: "Satisfying the People's Needs"]

[Text] The important 25th anniversary of the founding of the Socialist Academy [SAK] is an appropriate occasion for a discussion about the SAK's success in meeting its varied objectives. The participants: Ph Dr [Ph D] Vladimir Ruml, Dr Sc [Science], chairman of the Central Committee of the CSSR SAK; Dr Pavol Paska, CSc, [candidate for Dr Sc], chairman of the Central Committee of the SSR SAK; further members of the presidium of the Central Committee of the CSR SAK -- Ph Dr Josef Koci, Dr Sc and professor Ph Dr Jiri Loukotka, CSc -- and the chairman of the Scientific Methodological Council for Propaganda in Natural and Technical Sciences of the CSR SAK, professor Eng Jiri Celeda, CSc.

TVORBA: From the time were hunting mammoths, through primitive animal husbandry to today's space flights, man keeps asking: What is it? Why is it so? What is the connection?.... But he is primarily interested in the world and his position in it. The answer was, in every period, limited by the level of the knowledge then existing or by the interests of the governing classes. Even in our society man needs answers to questions which bother him. But not any kind of an answer, because he needs a scientifically truthful answer which is in accord with party policy and at the same time one which he can understand and which interests him. Is he getting such an answer?

Ruml: Our task is more complicated than that. The development of our society is predicated on increasing the socialist awareness of all working people. This means not only that we must communicate knowledge which people need but that we must respect them at the same time as subjects of their own development and active cocreators of their own life. This places a tremendous responsibility not only on the development of natural and technical sciences but at the same time on the development of social sciences. It is they which help us understand man not only as a recipient but, at the same time, as the creator of all social values. Therein I see the internal pathos of our work and source of all activity which we are trying to generate in people.

Celeda: We have, from the beginning, been trying to take advantage of the sincere interest of people in questions to which they had no answer. We invited them to informal question and answer evenings, and they came. We organized get-togethers in Prague halls and gardens, as well as in other kraj and okres towns, in newly established agricultural cooperatives and in factories. Marxist philosophers, pedagogists, political workers, natural scientists and technicians took part in discussion get-togethers and question-and-answer evenings. Lively discussions for example about the origin of the universe, matter and energy, the origin of life on Earth, the indestructibility of matter and many other topics frequently drew 200 to 300 people for a whole evening. The discussions lasted till midnight; there was no end to questions and answers. In addition, shorthand transcripts of questions and answers served also other lecturers in okreses and factories. In this way our actions involved wide circles of the public.

TVORBA: I believe that many of the work methods used in the past did not become obsolete because they were establishing live immediate contact with people. Of course, this required a high degree of professional knowledge from the lecturer, a firmly rooted world view and the ability to explain even complex matters simply and understandably [and] therefore, abiding faith in man's ability to acquire knowledge and grasp its meaning.

Koci: Even today a lecturer's live word is the most effective means of contact with people. Of course, it has a comparatively small reach. Because a get-together [or] a lecture usually addresses itself to mere dozens of people, whereas the media speak to the public. Therefore, the objective is to use the effective classical form by means of modern mass media to a much greater extent than hitherto. We have already made the first step: We have worked out a plan of cooperation with radio and television.

TVORBA: Therefore, the problem is how to preserve the liveliness of the former formats under present day conditions. The technology, of course, is only a means. It is no replacement for the content and the force of the idea, the argument. If we have anything to say, we certainly will not reject the microphone, the printing press and the television camera. All these and many other means will help us carry our ideas also to people whom we perhaps would not reach easily by any other means. But it is no replacement for the lecturer's personal input, the immediacy of his contact with people. The experiences of the first lecturers of SAK are therefore irreplaceable: They emphasize the importance of concreteness, specificity and personal persuading. Even one of the last resolutions of the CPSU Central Committee stressed the irreplaceability of the lecturer in all canvassing and propaganda work. Contact with listeners, the impact of the lecturer's own words on them certainly is also a lesson for him.

Loukotka: But let us not forget that in 25 years the situation has changed substantially. In the beginning, we were satisfying the people's need to

be informed, to know frequently by a single appearance. We were answering an immediate need, a hunger for information. I believe that today other forms also, must be used. We are trying to introduce whole series of lectures through people's academies and people's universities. It is no longer sufficient to react only to spontaneous demands from people at large. We ourselves are trying to raise important topics which are vital for the spreading of a scientific world view and submit them to krajs and okreses in the form of theme plans and concrete offers of a variety of lecture series, because, otherwise, it could happen, as sometimes happened in the past, that in some places only peripheral questions were addressed or only strictly educational activities pursued (for example courses in sewing or cooking), which could have been conducted by other organizations.

Koci: The correct balance between the planned program, the orientation demanded by central organs and the spontaneous needs, interests and demands of people in our okreses and krajs -- this presents complicated political questions. Naturally, we are grateful for every initiative, whatever the source. The spontaneous reaction of the public represents one key indicator of the people's attitude to the problems facing them. But to react solely to initiatives which reach us is not enough. For example, a question asked from a regional viewpoint would seem to require also an answer formulated from this viewpoint. This need not always be correct and frequently leads to a narrow distorted view of reality, which has to be understood in its complexity. For this reason, we must strive, very sensitively of course, to make use of local needs and interests and provide assistance in the form of themes, methods, even lectures in individual okreses and krajs, and wherever needed.

Celeda: Of course, it is not as simple as would appear at first sight. One handicap which has to be overcome is the tradition of the unilateral orientation towards liberal arts in education, which prevailed in the Masaryk republic. It survives, especially among the older generation of our intelligentsia. It is the tradition of literary salons of the bourgeois republic, which reduced culture primarily to literature, the arts and social sciences. In an elitist way, it limited itself to exclusive fashionable trends meant only for a narrow circle of intellectuals. These circles made a point of priding themselves with illiteracy or semiliteracy in natural sciences, claiming to stand above the material cares of life. Such tendencies were then strengthened in the crisis years and affected, in a revived form, also the young generation of the intelligentsia. The SAK opposed such elitist interpretation of culture and bourgeois teachings by increased propagandizing of popular sciences.

Koci: The consequences are felt also in the propaganda of popular science. Traditionally, many technicians and natural scientists considered themselves to be apolitical. They claimed to be representatives of objectively valid, exact sciences and viewed social sciences as something between

science and fiction. As a historian I still meet up with this attitude: People today are not overly impressed by the fantastic developments in physics, chemistry and biology. The fact that textbooks of these disciplines, published 10 or 15 years ago, are already dated does not make them lose confidence in these sciences - but rather evokes admiration about their progress. In contrast, the assessment of certain historical events in the past and today, for example, is frequently interpreted not as the reflection of a more profound understanding of reality but as proof of the speculative or subjective nature of the historical science. It is primarily practical life which ought to convince people about the scientific nature of social sciences. We must make use of this in our work and teach people to look around themselves.

Loukotka: Conflicts arise whenever we fail to approach the solution and explanation of various problems from all aspects and comprehensively. A highly specialized approach leads astray both ideologically and politically. A mere professional explanation in the narrow sense of the word does not give people what is most important: the idea what this or that is actually good for. Therefore, in the first place we must remove our blinders, respect related disciplines and make use of them. Because the fact that natural, technical, and social sciences were developing separately for a long time, differed in methodology, techniques and the approach to the solution of problems is a handicap. The current endeavor -- for the adoption of a comprehensive view of reality as a whole, for the understanding of all essential mutual relationships and necessary connections -- frequently meets with the unwillingness, sometimes also inability, of some specialists -- frequently also illustrious ones -- to become aware of their onesidedness, broaden their outlook by considering peripheral areas, accept the research results of related disciplines and try to gain an integrated view of reality in cooperation with others.

Ruml: Of course, the above-mentioned comprehensive approach must not be understood to include only the preparation and work of the individual lecturer. It applies to all political-organizational activity of the SAK as a whole: its planning, the conceptual and systematic work of all its organs and its cooperation with organs and organizations of the National Front, national committees, schools and enterprises.

Koci: The educational standard of our people -- whether we are aware of it or not -- has grown enormously. Therefore, propagandist work, its methods and forms must not lag behind the level of to whom it is addressed but must keep pace with the natural development of knowledge.

Celeda: Here we are faced with a great task. We need to enlist the cooperation of all progressively thinking members of the scientific and technical intelligentsia and provide for interpretations of newly acquired knowledge in the light of materialism, which official science failed to do. Such

interpretation, with the active participation of the listener, is an enrichment, not solely to him but also to the lecturer, because it intensifies his own understanding of the subject matter.

Ruml: Of course, the materialistic interpretation and popularization of scientific, technical and other knowledge cannot be considered to be our only task. While it is true, it is by far not the whole truth. Science creates its own language, its own formalized theory. The objective of our propaganda is not only the "translation" of scientifically presented knowledge into generally understandable language. Science does not represent "the heights" and propaganda "the vulgar" as we sometimes hear. Both are, from different viewpoints, productive actions. Our propaganda has an autonomous productive mission. It promotes the understanding of problems in a much wider context than individual scientific disciplines do. This amounts to a productive task in its own right. Whoever is faced with it must transcend the narrow limits of his own specialization, keep improving himself, clarify to himself and others the questions probed from the society's viewpoint. It amounts to a self-realization of the intellectual by transformation into a citizen, because we, too, constitute targets of our own activity.

Koci: Few are aware of this. The idea that a lecturer's activity is unidirectional is being overcome. This "messianic complex" is completely unjustified. Because every really creative intellectual worker is actually driven to public activity. He is, thereby, gaining many stimuli and new ideas. I know this from my own experience. In various discussions, questions came up which never even crossed my mind before. I have not always been able to answer them immediately, but they frequently forced me to explore them more thoroughly through research, in cooperation with other specialists. This is important to everybody who wants to keep growing and improving himself.

Ruml: Effective, world-view oriented propaganda is a collective effort. The philosopher is supplemented by a scientific atheist, the natural scientist by an economist. Our work is mutually conditions and energized. It enable us "to overreach ourselves," allows the philosopher to grasp better the impact of economic laws, the economist to respect the philosophical nature of the phenomena under study.....Only such close cooperation creates conditions favoring effective activity. This is why the work of our scientific-methodological councils and sections in the true sense of the word represents creative work. Problems are discussed and weighed from all sides, the most suitable solution and most applicable argumentation are sought. This profits not only our listeners but also ourselves.

Loukotka: This can be seen best in our work with young people. We follow attentively the development of their interests and needs in the area of science, technology and natural sciences. Without it we would not be able to explain problems interestingly to young people. And I admit that it is also an art which has to be mastered.

Koci: We are not interested in the easiest and at the same time treacherous road -- currying favor with the young. Unfortunately, numbers of popular science publications and magazines are being published which, by external attractiveness, are making up for the lack of a serious approach. They are not educational, they vulgarize problems. I reject this kind of approach as a matter of principle. The search for a special channel of communication with the young must not include a lowering of the political, ideological, and professional standard of what we have to offer.

Loukotka: Of course, this does not mean that it should be uninteresting and drab. We must think things through to keep up interest and, at the same time, maintain the desired high standard. We have "live" okreses where they know how to do it. For example, young people, frequently a priori claimed to be nonpolitical, attend lecture series dealing with weighty political questions with great interest. At Liberec, for example, series of lectures are being given about history, world literature, the arts and music before a predominantly young audience. Halls for 200, 300 people are inadequate.... Where we are successful in meeting the needs of the young, arouse their interest and keep their attention, we need have no worry about them. They will even grow up into new young lecturers.

Ruml: Our school can also help us prepare young lecturers. I want to mention an interesting experience from the Leningrad Technical University. Any student able to write a good treatise on a useful topic is given the chance of presenting it in an enterprise or a factory. Known scientists and designers remember this, their first step into public life, as a good beginning of their later political work.

Loukotka: Aside from acquiring their basic professional qualification, interested Soviet students can also acquire the qualification of lecturers and propagandists. It enhances their standing in their place of work and wherever they go as lecturers and propagandists. Moreover, Obschestvo-Znanie has no problems with young lecturers; it can organize propagandist work on a sufficiently large scale among the masses.

Ruml: Part of a good propagandist's qualification is the art of knowing how to address the substantive, specifically the "human" side of scientific and technical progress. For example, the results of scientific work should be presented to people so as to reflect the tremendous effort expended by many workers, as the result of the never ending process of discovery...

TVORBA: The greatest art is not acquainting people with accomplished results, but enabling them to relive "in a nutshell" the adventure of discovery which is present whenever humanity moves a step forward; helping them gain an insight into conflicts of opinions, not only professional, but also ideological and moral; and pointing out to them the way to everything

new and progressive as a dramatic contest of ideas, opinions and attitudes -- preserving of course the deeply material substance....

Ruml: Exactly. Such an illustration will tremendously illuminate the whole complex lawfulness of the cognitive process. Without a similar analysis of the past, we would not be able to plan for the future.

Koci: Its importance cannot be stressed enough. Who knows for how many young people this "adventure of discovery," which they are experiencing while reading or debating, is the first stimulus channeling their interest, defining and perhaps even making their lives' wishes and dreams come true.

Paska: For this reason a lecturer must thoroughly prepare for his activity. High quality propagandist work is not only in rendering the discoveries of science, technology and culture accessible and in enabling the utilization of sources of scientific information and modern means of audiovisual and didactic technology: First an active mutual relationship must be established between the lecturer and the mature listener, and his life's experiences, possibilities, needs and interests must be engaged. This calls for a thorough knowledge of motivational, psychophysical and other special characteristics of adults in the cognitive process. For this reason the scientific underpinnings of adult education, especially the fundamentals of pedagogy and psychology of adults must be refined and used also in the activities of the SAK.

Ruml: We must adopt the correct philosophical and dialectical-materialistic approach in theory and practice and observe the comprehensive impact of the laws of nature and society. Only in this way can we contribute to the formation of the scientific world view by our listeners.

Paska: This is at the same time also the basic direction for improving our work in the future. It is gratifying that we can rely on a team of experienced members of the younger generation of the intelligentsia dedicated to socialism to achieve this end.

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EAST GERMANY

CODE OF ETHICS TO BE EVOLVED FOR JUDICATURE

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[Article by Dr Hans Schoenfeldt, political science and jurisprudence section, Friedrich Schiller University, Jena: "On the Subject of an Ethic for Courts of Law"]

[Text] If the attainment of the social-strategy objective of the Ninth SED Party Congress--to continue to shape the developed socialist society in the GDR and thus to create fundamental prerequisites for the gradual transition to communism--is correctly grasped in terms of its essence as "a historical process of profound political, economic, social, and intellectual-cultural changes," which makes it necessary "to develop all advantages and driving forces, all aspects and sectors of social life on a high level according to plan" (1), then the level and complexity of the requirements to be addressed to jurisprudence, its management and its cadres will also become clear. By accomplishing its constitutional mission--to serve for the execution of socialist legality, for the protection and development of the German Democratic Republic and its system of government and laws, to protect freedom, peaceful life, and the rights and dignity of individuals (article 90, paragraph 1)--jurisprudence, by the way in which it copes with individuals, their problems and conflicts, and through the criteria established in its decisions [verdicts], contributes to a situation "where the way of social life and individual behavior, which are characteristic for the developed socialist society, is being increasingly fashioned in all walks of life" (2).

This also means that there is an increase in the demand to be addressed to science--the demand for exploring the manifold laws of the qualitatively constantly developing social process, especially the growing subjective factor and its moral component, and thus to support the practical shaping of this process.

The problems of the socialist way of life and ethics, which are connected with the function and activity of jurisprudence, have so far not been handled in a sufficiently specific manner and the impulses springing from science in this respect are still too few. We can record however initial suggestions for

further work on court ethics, last but not least through the transmission of Soviet experiences (3). In practice however, the great degree of timeliness of an in-depth development of court ethics becomes quite clear. For example, the manifold initiatives for the more effective development of criminal proceedings bring up the question as to relations between the community and the responsibility of the individual organ or staff member. Furthermore, the following questions are involved, among others: what does the function of jurisprudence consist of in connection with the development of the socialist way of life and ethics? What is the significance of the moral consciousness of judges, prosecutors, and investigators in the accomplishment of their assignments? How should their professional ethics be developed? These and other questions can be answered in a scientifically exact manner only if one pursues court ethics from the correct viewpoint, if one correctly illustrates its essence and its subject. This article is designed to contribute to the clarification of these points of departure for court ethics research.

Court Ethics and Marxist Ethics

M. S. Strogovich has critically pointed out that, in court-ethics studies in juridical literature, a connection is not always established with the general fundamentals of ethics and he stressed with full justification that one can investigate the problems of court ethics only on the foundation of general Marxist ethics (4). Because court ethics in fact investigate no problems other than moral problems, they must accordingly also be understood as a special branch of Marxist ethics which deals with the questions of morality coming up in the area of socialist jurisprudence and for which, in comparison to general ethics, the dialectic of the general and the special, of the abstract and the concrete applies. This means that we are starting with the existence of a uniform morality which encompasses all sectors of socialist society and we are not removing from this the sector of jurisprudence, perhaps as a special sector to which only legal regulations would apply. Consequently, there is an essential connection between court ethics and Marxist ethics which must be taken into account in all deliberations.

Court Ethics and Jurisprudence

The question as to the relationship between court ethics and jurisprudence can be answered only if one starts with the reciprocal relationship between ethics and law. Both ethics and the theory of law adopted a position on law and morality (5). In the process, the common features but also the special features of both social phenomena were brought out. Under socialism, they are rooted in the foundation of the existence of the working class and they are--albeit differentiated--forms of expression of the will of the working class. "The social task of law and morality is uniform. Both of them have equally social character. Both of them involve behavior norms where the evaluating, commanding, and motivating character of both categories is expressed. Both have uniform action areas and action directions. The law itself is to a considerable degree a form of expression of the social morality and moral consciousness is essentially socialist state and law consciousness.

The bond between the two of them represents a dialectical unit which includes the difference and the contradiction in itself" (6). Nevertheless, one must not overlook the fact that we are dealing with two phenomena which must be distinguished from each other and which are by no means identical. These differences result primarily from the fact that law is historically tied in with the state, that it originated with it and that it is standardized by it and guaranteed by it through its governmental power while morality is produced and also implemented directly by society. The differentiation between law and morality also becomes recognizable by the fact that their effectiveness radii do not coincide completely. There are vast areas which are covered by both of them. However: "Not every legal norm is at the same time also a moral norm and the other way around" (7)

The common features and the differentiation between law and morality apply fully also to jurisprudence. Court proceedings and trial law have a moral function and relate to social processes which are morally relevant. In this sense, the procedural tasks, principles and values as well as most of the trial standards at the same time also have a moral character. That applies even to such seemingly technical or formal norms as the deadline for legal recourse which after all expresses the moral demand for the brisk conclusion of proceedings and also for the exact preservation of the rights of the accused.

Ziemen has therefore put it quite accurately: "It is not enough to set up counselling or procedural strategy, tactics and techniques according to legal principles, norms, and rules; instead, we must here consciously act according to the ethical maxims which constitute their foundation" (8). Here we therefore cannot be concerned with construing moral principles as a phenomenon which is above the law. From the dialectical relationship between law and morality however it follows that legal norms as a rule at the same time have a moral aspect which must be brought out in connection with the application of the law in order thus to achieve a higher degree of social effectiveness. Because the law cannot include all norms of behavior, jurisprudence certainly has room for moral relationships, principles, and criteria which are not legally regulated, especially in those places where we are concerned with the manner of the implementation of the individual procedural [trial] measure and the development of relationships between the parties to the trial [proceedings]. By way of example we might mention the community and individual responsibility, criticism and self-criticism but also honesty, reliability, courtesy, and external culture as simple laws of morality and of cultivated behavior which belong among the elementary requirements of court culture and which are expressed in the way in which the trial is conducted, in the polemic of the plea, etc.

The scientific elaboration of the moral aspects of jurisprudence therefore is a necessary task. It exploits the moral effectiveness factor of jurisprudence and provides impetus for trial theory and practice.

But this task can be mastered only if one starts with the fundamentals of ethics and of law as a science in keeping with the relationship between

morality and law. From that angle it would be conceivable to associate court ethics either with ethics as a specific area of application or the science of law as a special discipline in terms of an applied science. The previously developed connection between court ethics and general ethics already speaks in favor of the first-named solution. The association with legal science on the other hand would be supported above all by the connections with the subject of legal science and the fact that it is above all the jurists who are concerned with problems of court ethics in order to apply ethics to their subject, to cast light upon it from a new angle, and thus to illuminate the effectiveness factors for practical jurisprudence.

The integration of court ethics into the science system must be explained in the light of the general tendency of the integration and specialization of science. Because general ethics cannot come up with a specific answer to specific moral questions of jurisprudence--that would require a precise knowledge of the specifics--we can say that the development of a specific branch of ethics is required for the investigation of this subject. This means that a new branch of science springs up along the boundary lines between law and general ethics, a new branch of science which is supposed to make ethics useful in jurisprudence. As a result we therefore arrive at the conclusion that court ethics represents an independent science branch in the boundary region of ethics and law. It is so connected with ethics that it must be considered as one of its component disciplines. At the same time it is also closely tied to legal science as a science applied to the former because the former investigates the same area of social conditions from the legal aspects and because the dialectic of morality and law must be considered by both sciences (9).

Subject of Court Ethics

As a part of ethics, court ethics must determine its subject in agreement with general ethics. "Marxist ethics investigates the laws of the origin, development, and operating procedure of morality as a form of social consciousness, its essence and its social function, as well as the ways leading toward the full unfolding of moral relations and driving forces in the creation of the socialist and communist society" (10)

As far as court ethics are concerned, the problem complex of subject determination consists above all in the correct recording of the relationship between the moral aspects and the ethics of this social subsector, on the one hand, and the general principles of socialist morality and general ethics, on the other hand. That is of basic significance for the content and the ways of solution of court ethics. Luther reported in detail on the dispute conducted on this subject in Soviet literature (11). The point of departure in clearing up this question, in my opinion, must be the dialectical relationship between the general and the special, the abstract and the concrete. In the process of the specialization of ethics according to the differentiated social conditions, discovery advances from the general to the special and from abstract principles to concrete norms and relations. Court ethics

explores a special sphere of application, a social subregion, [as well as] concrete conditions of morality. Here it applies the general teachings of ethics to the specific subject but it does not confine itself to evidencing the action of the general principles but also works out the specifics. One cannot overlook the fact that the relationships of the personnel of the agencies of jurisprudence, for example, to the accused or the indicted in criminal proceedings, reveal some peculiarities as compared to general relationships between citizens. A criminal trial interrogation is not a simple conversation. Investigative detention and other trial measures are not every day social instruments. In the application of the general principles of morality to them one must consider the special conditions. The scientific exploration of the specifics of the application of general moral principles to the conditions of jurisprudence, their concretization to the differentiated requirements of this sector, are therefore necessary. But there is no irreconcilable conflict between the general, the special, and the individual; "the individual exists only in the context which leads to the general" (12). Accordingly, the subject of court ethics must be understood as a dialectical unit of the general, related to general ethics, and of the special related to the area of application. It is therefore important--in the special aspect, to prove the action of the general and that of the specific. In doing that, one must not confuse the general and the specific with rules and exceptions. This cannot mean that court ethics would have to work out exceptions from the general rules of morality. But it must be recognized that the general appears or is modified in the special, in a specific fashion.

The noncomprehension of reciprocal relationships between general and specific moral standards would lead to onesided views. On the one hand, interpretations could so absolutize the specifics of individual moral standards in jurisprudence that they would deny the connection with the general principles of socialist morality, and that they would arrive at unacceptable solutions for individual moral problems. On the other hand, views which are against the development of specific, concrete moral norms (resolving all questions only with the help of the general code of socialist morality) remain stuck in the general and the abstract and thus prevent a concrete solution of the moral problems.

It has already become clear that the relationship between general ethics and court ethics is also determined by the dialectic of the abstract and the concrete in the process of cognition. The teachings of general ethics are general and abstract compared to the teachings of court ethics. They embody the ascent of realization or discovery from the concrete to the abstract and they make it possible to use the abstract discoveries as to the essence of morality for the in-depth recognition of the concrete, such as it is illustrated by every specific field of application of morality, including the sector of jurisprudence. Here there can be impulses which would continue the abstraction on a higher level. Here is what that means: court ethics investigate their subject by using abstractions which were worked out by general ethics; they concretize these realizations with respect to the manifold phenomena and at the same time participate in the further development of general ethics leading from the concrete to the abstract.

Accordingly we can establish this: as a special discipline of Marxist ethics, court ethics explore socialist morality in terms of its application to the sphere of jurisprudence.

The subject of court ethics includes moral views, principles, standards and values, practical moral action as well as moral conditions which exist objectively in jurisprudence.

The subject of court ethics specifically includes the following:

The action of the ethical categories in the specific relationships of jurisprudence (justice, duty, conscience, honor, the dialectic of the end and the means assumes special significance here);

The moral aspects of the function of jurisprudence (13) (here we find emphasized above all the manner of the dispute in the trials, the criteria of the socialist way of life and morality to be spelled out in the rulings, as well as the laws, means, and methods of the moral component of the educational function of jurisprudence);

The moral aspects of the basic principles, norms, and values of jurisprudence and of trial law (in criminal proceedings we are concerned here primarily with the moral significance of guaranteeing socialist legality, the determination of objective truth, respect for the dignity of man, guaranteeing the right to defense, the participation of the citizens in criminal proceedings, as well as the differentiated development and accelerated implementation of the trials);

The moral aspects of the trial activity of the judges, jury members, prosecutors, investigators, lawyers, members of social courts, cooperating social forces and miscellaneous parties involved in the trial (that includes, for example, the basic principles of their cooperation, such as socialist collectivity, individual responsibility and independence considering the particular specific trial function, criticism and selfcriticism, observation of the simple laws of morality and cultivated behavior (court culture));

The moral aspects of the procedures involved in jurisprudence (here we must investigate the differentiated moral problems of the individual types of proceedings and stages as well as the various trial measures);

The professional ethics of the judges, prosecutors, investigators, and lawyers who exercise jurisprudence as a profession.

With this determination of subject matter we tie in with Soviet studies and with the viewpoints expressed in GDR literature on the subject of court ethics and we try to continue that (14). It shows clearly that court ethics must explore the moral aspects in all sectors of jurisprudence. If criminal proceedings, because of their significance, so far have been at the focus of court ethics research, that does not mean that the moral problems of

proceedings in civil, family, and labor law cases must be excluded. They must also be investigated.

A. Ratinov and Yu. Zarkin extend the subject of court ethics to the off-duty behavior of persons professionally involved in court proceedings. They consider here the fact that such an official is in the public eye and that his behavior in his personal life has an effect on his professional prestige and the authority of the government. "If he has compromised himself in everyday life, he sometimes also loses the confidence of the people in his profession." This is why, for his personal life, they demand "a strict framework which will assure him of the necessary moral freedom in his official activities"; they furthermore demand "that he be choosy in selecting his acquaintances" (15). This reference to the aspect of the personal life of judges, prosecutors, and investigators is correct and quite worthy of consideration. They must be considered in the illustration of the moral personality requirements which must be set up for those functionaries. But we do not expressly include this aspect in the determination of the subject because, as far as its essence is concerned, we are dealing here with a marginal phenomenon and an area in which general rules of morality prevail. What we demand of a judge, a prosecutor, or an investigator is nothing more and nothing less than to comply with those rules in an exemplary fashion.

In most studies on court ethics, the subject of court ethics is related only to those who are professionally involved in criminal proceedings; court ethics are considered exclusively as professional ethics of judges, prosecutors, investigators, and lawyers. Moral problems involved in the cooperation of citizens in jurisprudence, either as persons making a report, as damaged persons, as witnesses, as experts, or as representatives of a group or as social plaintiffs or social defendants, as a rule are touched upon only from the angle of the moral relations of the jurists to them. The moral requirements resulting in connection with jurisprudence as far as those citizens and groups are concerned must however also be included in the subject of court ethics. It is also important to address this broad group of persons. Thus, N. Alekseyev and N. Zakharchenko, in their popular-science study "Law and Communist Morality (Law, Ethics, and Jurisprudence)" also deal with the moral duty of the citizens toward jurisprudence. Among other things, they expose the immorality and unlawfulness of false statements and they underscore the moral responsibility of groups and social organizations for the objectivity of the judgments which they make on the accused (16).

The question as to whether the subject of court ethics also includes the moral foundations of the norms of the material law to be applied we can answer to the extent that they are not a direct subject of court ethics dealing with the moral aspects of trial activities involved in jurisprudence (17). The theoretical elaboration of the moral foundations of material law, such as criminal law, however is very important for the full implementation of the moral function of jurisprudence and especially of criminal proceedings (18). If in practice it is not always possible to make the moral side of the criminal act visible and fully to bring out the moral function of the application of criminal law, this is partly also due to the fact that the moral

foundations of criminal law, particularly the special part, are theoretically inadequately elaborated (19).

Court ethics and the subject, like all things and phenomena, are subject to historical development. Thus the moral principles of socialist jurisprudence developed in the process of the practical dispute of the working class and its party with bourgeois jurisprudence and its ideology and in the process of building socialist jurisprudence and overcoming outdated bourgeois views. In dialectical negation, all progressive traditions of history of jurisprudence were eliminated and further developed in our jurisprudence. Above all we rooted out the reactionary, antihuman and antipopular features, such as they were inherent in the jurisprudence of the exploiter system. It will be the task of court ethics to prove this development process and thus also to explore the historical foundation of court ethics. This calls for a team effort with law historians. In court ethics studies conducted so far, this historical aspect has in a certain way been neglected because it was above all important and it still is above all important to do justice to the urgent requirements first of all to advance to the problems of court ethics and to provide initial incentives in actual practice.

Tasks of Court Ethics

As part of Marxist ethics, court ethics are guided by the general tasks of ethics and derive their specific contribution from that. It is the task of court ethics to explore the moral principles, values, norms, etc., which are at work in jurisprudence, as the expression, level, and condition of social requirements with the goal of guiding criminal jurisprudence in its activity and in the accomplishment of its tasks.

Here, ethics starts with Marxism-Leninism in the unity of their three components. They derive morality not in an idealistic fashion from a supraworldly phenomenon but rather from the objective conditions and the resultant historical necessities, from the class interest of the working class and its allies. Lenin said: "Any morality which is derived from a supernatural, classless concept we reject. We say that it is a fraud, a swindle, in order to befuddle the brains of the workers and peasants in the interests of the landowners and capitalists. We say that our morality is completely subordinated to the interests of the proletarian class struggle. Our morality is derived from the interests of the proletarian class struggle." (20). Only using this materialistic foundation can one come up with a scientifically justified statement on morality and can one provide effective guidance for the actions of the individual for the development of socialist personality.

In exploring the special problems of socialist jurisprudence, court ethics become involved in the communication on their tasks, principles, and instruments, on the cooperation of all forces and citizens involved. By working out the moral profile, the ethic of the jurist, the judge, the jury member, the prosecutor, the investigator, the attorney, and the member of the social court they perform an important ideological function.

Because court ethics have just been formed it is above all necessary to clarify the theoretical foundations and, building on that, to explore, generalize, and further permeate the practical experiences of jurists actively involved in jurisprudence. In this way court ethics contribute to creating the scientific prerequisites for the direction and exercise of jurisprudence, especially for the moral education of the cadres as well as the moral function of jurisprudence.

FOOTNOTES

1. "Programm der Sozialistischen Einheitspartei Deutschlands," Berlin, 1976, p 19.
2. Ibid., p 53.
3. See K. Ziemen, "Court Ethics," DER SCHOEFFLE, 1972, pp 125 ff.; H. Luther, "Court Ethics," STAAT UND RECHT, 1973, pp 1307 ff.
4. See M. S. Strogovich, "Court Ethics, their Subject and Essence," SOVETSKOYE GOSUDARSTVO I PRAVO, 1971, No 12, p 88.
5. See M. Kareva, "Recht und Moral in der sozialistischen Gesellschaft," Berlin, 1954; A. F. Shishkin, "Grundlagen der marxistischen Ethik," Berlin, 1964, pp 122 ff.; G. Haney, "Sozialistisches Recht und Persoenlichkeit," Berlin, 1967, pp 147 ff.; "Marxistisch-leninistische Staats- und Rechtstheorie," Textbook, Berlin, 1975, pp 386 ff.
6. "Marxistisch-leninistische Staats- und Rechtstheorie," loc. cit., p 388 f.
7. Loc. cit., p 389.
8. K. Ziemen, loc. cit., p 126.
9. See also N. A. Zakharchenko, PRAVOVEDENIYE, 1974, No 3, p 126 f.
10. "Philosophisches Woerterbuch," Edited by G. Klaus and M. Buhr, 10th Edition, Vol I, Leipzig, 1974, p 381.
11. See H. Luther, loc. cit.
12. V. I. Lenin, "Werke," Vol 38, Berlin, 1964, p 340.
13. See H. Schoenfeldt, "The Tasks of Criminal Proceedings in Implementing the Socialist Way of Life and Morality," Sixth Jena Jurists' Convention, 1975, Scientific Contributions of the Friedrich Schiller University, Jena, 1976, pp 81 ff.
14. See K. Ziemen, loc. cit.; H. Luther, loc. cit., and Soviet literature quoted by him; "Probleme der Gerichtsethik" (Edited by M. S. Strogovich),

Moscow, 1974, pp 3 ff. (Russian); G. F. Gorskiy, L. D. Kokorev, D. F. Kotov, Court Ethics, Voronezh, 1973, pp 7 ff. (Russian).

15. A. Ratinov, Yu. Zarkhin, "The Ethics of Investigation," Sotsialisticheskaya Zakonnost, 1970, No 10, pp 35 ff.
16. See N. Alekseyev, N. Zakharchenko, "Law and Communist Morality (Law, Ethics, and Jurisprudence)," Moscow, 1975, pp 104 ff (Russian).
17. See "Probleme der Gerichtsethik," loc. cit., pp 32 ff.
18. In our view, it could be a subject of a comprehensive law ehtics which would also have to be included in court ethics.
19. In the new textbook "Strafrecht Allgemeiner Teil," Berlin, 1976, there are suggestions for this, especially on the problem of guilt.
20. V. I. Lenin, "Werke," Vol 31, Berlin, 1959, p 281.

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EAST GERMANY

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF LABOR CODE DRAFT VIEWED

East Berlin NEUES DEUTSCHLAND in German 4, 5 Jun 77 p 10

[Article by Prof Dr Wera Thiel: "The Right to Work and the Development of Personality--An Observation on the Draft of the GDR Labor Code"]

[Text] On 21 January of this year, TRIBUENE published the Draft of the GDR Labor Code. Since then, 5.8 million workers have studied and discussed the draft. The board of the FDGB [Free German Labor Union Federation] received 147,806 proposals, comments and inquiries. These communications contained 39,533 suggestions for changes and amendments, which resulted in 90 changes of content and 144 textual revisions of the Draft. At the Ninth FDGB Congress, the grass roots discussion on the Labor Code reached its climax. The delegates approved of the revised Draft, which can now be submitted to the People's Chamber to be deliberated and voted upon.

The Draft reflects the fundamental social progress made since the Eighth SED Congress and it is in accordance with the objective formulated by the Ninth Congress "to develop in the German Democratic Republic the advanced socialist society and thus to establish the basic preconditions for the gradual transition to Communism."¹

In accordance with this objective, the basic right to work was further extended in the Draft. This basic right is one of the crucial achievements of Socialism, in which--in the words of the Communist Manifesto--"the free development of the individual is the precondition for the free development of all."²

The Meaning of Social Security in Socialism

To us, social security means more than the material-legal protection against the emergencies and vicissitudes of life as defined--exclusive of the right to work--in the social and labor legislation of capitalist states and in Agreement 102 of the International Labor Organization.³

In Socialism, social security means first of all that every citizen can satisfy his needs in and through his work. In his speech at the Ninth FDGB Congress, Erich Honecker stated: "For every worker, the new Labor Code emphatically confirms the right to work. It is a fundamental human right, which in many ways is tied up with other rights and obligations of man and which greatly influences his wellbeing and happiness."⁴ In our country, work is one of the foundations of true personal freedom.

Due to the socialist character of work and owing to its qualitative development, it is primarily in the work process that the new personality traits of man take shape: Mutual assistance and comradely cooperation, the sense of responsibility, political engagement and the willingness to learn; it is in the work process that experience is gained and that abilities and personality traits are developed which also determine to a large extent the relations in other areas of social life.

It is established that increasing expertise, advanced skills and broad responsibilities within the framework of the work performance and in the shaping of labor legislation directly affect the development and the social position of the personality. For this reason, the socialist Labor Code has a great effect on the development of the personality. The worker's responsible contribution--demanded and promoted in the Labor Code Draft--to superior efficiency and workmanship, to the enterprising intra-plant implementation of the socio-political program of the SED, and to the creative and continuous realization of socialist Democracy forms his personality. The work collective is the most important field in which the individual develops his abilities and talents and in which he experiences the position of his class in society.

It is especially in the work collectives of the producing industries that the close interaction between the development of socialist personalities and the qualitative growth of the working class manifests itself. Through the collective endeavor to augment the social wealth, there arise creative impulses concerning the development of the individual and of the entire collective. The effectiveness of the socialist Labor Code in the development of the collective manifests itself especially in the manifold forms of the mass initiative--above all in competition and in the innovator activities.

These features of work, which are characteristic of Socialism, also determine the basic right to work as defined in the Draft of the Labor Code on the basis of the GDR Constitution. This right is not merely a right among others; rather, it is man's fundamental right to self-realization.

According to Friedrich Engels, work represents "the basic condition of all human existence, and it is so fundamental that--in a sense--

we have to say: Work created man himself."⁵ Under socialist property and power relations, work--freed from exploitation--has for the first time made possible the development of all abilities and talents of man as well as his sovereign mastery over nature and society.

In Article 24, the GDR Constitution defines the basic right to work as the right to a job, the right to the free choice of this job in accordance with the social requirements and the personal qualifications, and as the right to remuneration in accordance with the quality and quantity of work; given an equal work performance, this right is equally shared by men and women, adults and juveniles. According to Article 21 of the Constitution, the basic right to work is at the same time the prerequisite for the right to participation in the management and planning of the enterprise.

Self-Realization in Creative Activity

Proceeding from these premises, the Labor Code Draft guarantees the workers' continuous, voluntary and conscious participation in the social work process in accordance with the social requirements and the personal qualifications. The Labor Code is oriented toward the development and efficient utilization of the social productive power, to the development of creativity and initiative and to the establishment of working conditions which promote the workers' zest for work and will to produce and which enable them to accomplish great achievements for the benefit of the socialist society and of every individual.

Furthermore, the Labor Code ensures the workers' participation in the political, economic, social and cultural activities in the enterprise; it guarantees--above all via the trade unions and their organs--their extensive and knowledgeable participation in management and planning. The basic right to work--in combination with its economic, political and ideological guarantees--ensures that all citizens are able--through increasingly creative work commensurate with their abilities--to establish the foundations for the satisfaction of their material and intellectual-cultural needs and for the unhindered development of their personalities.

Now that it is becoming increasingly obvious that the capitalist society is totally unable to solve the existential problems of the majority of the working people and that covert as well as overt unemployment jeopardizes the social existence of all workers, our social system guarantees not only the right to work in general, but the right to continuous employment for every worker.

This extensive guarantee of the basic right to work in the Labor Code Draft expresses the conformity of social and individual interests in

the solution of all problems involved in increasing the net efficiency of social work. The irrefutable principle of socialist society, according to which scientific-technological progress is employed in the interest and for the benefit of the working people, is valid not only for the working people in their entirety, but also for every individual worker.

It is not permissible that socialist efficiency measures resulting in cutbacks in manpower lead to negative consequences for the worker. The Draft of the Labor Code obligates the enterprises to transfer the workers victimized by structural changes or manpower reductions to other reasonable jobs, that is to positions commensurate with their qualifications and their previous working and living conditions; in such arrangements, the enterprises must give special protection to older workers, women and juveniles.

The guarantees of the basic right to work extend not only to these regulations which for the workers of our country are practically a matter of course, they refer also--and in particular--to the content of the work, to the definition of the task and to the right, appropriate to man, to be able to work creatively. Thus the Labor Code obligates the enterprise to organize the work in such a way that the available production capacities and the productive powers of the workers are efficiently utilized, that the workers can develop their expertise and faculties and that the creative elements of work will increase.

The demand to provide for a high degree of work diversity so that the workers will increasingly be able to develop their creative faculties and thus the various facets of their personality will probably keep us occupied for a long time. Every initiative in the socialist competition, every success achieved in competition and every prudent and profitable effort at innovation represents an attainment of the goal "to lead the majority of the workers to a field of activity, in which they can excel, develop their faculties and display those talents which the nation--an everflowing source--brings forth and which Capitalism crushed, suppressed and smothered by the thousands and millions."⁶

When we speak--with reference to our laws and our legal situation--of the fundamental human right to work, we are not speaking of work as the basis of subsistence or of mere full employment. This we take for granted. By the human right to work we mean man's right to self-realization, the right to work and live in a community, in which man--on the strength of his insight into the inherent laws of nature and society--is in control of his natural environment, the social processes and himself.

This right--to realize his true nature through free, creative work--is inconceivable in Capitalism. With regard to Marx' statement that "the same exploitation of productive power is the principal human right of capital," nothing has changed so far.⁷ And what is more: Under the conditions of monopolistic capitalism, the conflict between capital and labor has increased in intensity.

The report submitted by the general director of the International Labor Organization to the Geneva World Employment Conference in June 1976 proceeded from the following facts: At present, the unemployed and underemployed people in the world number 300 million, and there are 1.2 billion people who are deprived of any reasonable basis of subsistence.⁸ (the socialist countries are of course excluded here, since they guarantee the right to work). Responsible for this situation--which includes many new nation states--are the principal imperialist countries. Not counting short-time work, the number of unemployed persons in the imperialist countries themselves exceeds 15 million, the majority of which are juveniles, older people and women.

Basic Precondition for Real Freedom

There is not a single capitalist state which can assure its citizens of the right to work. Consequently, this right is not included in any bourgeois human rights catalog. It is precisely for this reason that one must point out that those right, which regulate the working and living conditions of the working people, represent the most basic precondition for the development of the personality. Freedom can grow only in circumstances, in which the working person can develop in the community, in collective togetherness, in the struggle with nature and in the management of this process; freedom can grow only in a social atmosphere "conducive to the enjoyment of work, to initiative, team spirit and the development of all the preconditions--especially those pertaining to management--ensuring superior quality and efficiency of work."⁹

The implementation of the right to work and the workers' increasingly knowledgeable participation in the overall development of their enterprise and of society represent the foundation of true freedom.

FOOTNOTES

1. "Program of the Socialist Unity Party of Germany," Protokoll des IX. Parteitages der SED [Minutes of the Ninth SED Congress], Berlin, 1976, p 212.
2. Marx/Engels, Works, Vol 4, p 482.
3. "Uebereinkommen und Empfehlungen der IAO" [Agreements and Recommendations of the International Labor Organization], Geneva, International Labor Office, 1966. Neither this nor any other agreement of this organization contain any reference to the states' obligation to grant and implement the right to work.

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4. E. Honecker, "We Have a Program for Growth, Affluence and Stability," NEUES DEUTSCHLAND, 18 May 1977, p 4.
 5. F. Engels, "Dialektik der Natur" [Dialectics of Nature], Marx/Engels, Works, Vol 20, p 444.
 6. V.I. Lenin, "How Is Competition to Be Organized?" Works, Vol 26, p 402.
 7. Marx/Engels, Works, Vol 23, p 309.
 8. D. Barth, "Right to Work," BEITRAEGE ZUR GESELLSCHAFTS- UND BILDUNGSPOLITIK, Cologne, No 8, 1976.
 9. "Further Tasks Regarding the Political Activity of the Party Among the Masses," Resolution Adopted by the Politbureau of the SED Central Committee on 18 May 1977, NEUES DEUTSCHLAND, 21/22 May 1977, p 3.

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MSZMP'S OVARI WRITES IN PAPER ON 1957 PARTY CONFERENCE

Budapest MTI in English 1035 GMT 2 Jul 77 LD

[Text] Budapest, 2 Jul, MTI--It was 20 years ago recently that the National Conference of the Hungarian Socialist Workers' Party was convened after grave shocks. On the occasion of the anniversary, Miklos Ovari, member of the HSWP Political Committee, secretary of the Central Committee, analyses the significance and timeliness of the 1957 party conference in a full-page article in the Saturday issue of NEPSZABADSAG.

When the conference met 20 years ago the forces of the counter-revolution had already been defeated, though not totally liquidated. The organs of people's power and the state apparatus and the armed bodies were reorganized. However, the forces of internal and international reaction had not yet given up their aims, and the ideological influence of the counter-revolution was still working in a major part of Hungarian society. The nationalist and anticommunist emotions stirred by the counter-revolution were not yet calmed and a part of the masses loyal to socialism was still passive. "In our struggle, we had the Soviet Union by our side and the support of the socialist countries, the international communist movement and the progressive forces in general, but by keeping alive the 'Hungarian problem,' as it was called, world imperialism was making repeated attempts at interference in our country's domestic affairs and stimulating the isolated counter-revolutionary forces to renewed attacks, the forces that already had enough experience to take action against the people's power and the party under cover of 'socialism,'" the author of the article writes.

In this intricate domestic political and international situation the party conference had to decide on the question whether to agree with and approve the steps the party leadership decided to take in November and the policy the Central Committee had followed since November 1956. The provisional character of the party, as reorganized, had to be eliminated and the conditions of normal party life had to be created until the next party congress. After recovery of the deep crisis, the most important tasks serving development in all the major domains of social life had to be fixed.

"The basis of faster progress," Miklos Ovari writes, "was creating order in the ranks of the party and the reestablishment of the Leninist norms of party life.... It had to be made clear that belonging to the party does not go together with material advantages but it means dedicated service of socialism and the people's cause. We had to keep away from the party social climbers and also those persons loyal to socialism who were not able to accept the consequences of party membership, though they agreed with our party's objectives.... Stabilizing unity in the party was a number one responsibility. In order that unity be no mere declaration but actual unity, the theoretical and political questions had to be cleared in debates. In this aspect, too, the party conference was exemplary. It realized the important lesson of universal validity that there is no overcoming sectarianism on a revisionist basis and there is no successful fight against revisionism with sectarian and dogmatic views. These two, in fact, reinforces one another and therefore both had to be fought at the same time. The two-front battle developed according to not some kind of an abstract pattern of theory, but it was a very practical requirement posed by the concrete situation. It was a real debate against both the sectarian and dogmatic, and the revisionist views, and with this the conference laid the firm foundations for real unity based on the clarification of the theoretical questions," Miklos Ovari stresses, pointing out that the establishment of unity in the party created favorable conditions for the further strengthening of the party's mass contact. The consistent fight against the counter-revolution and putting out of the way of the former party leaders that had committed grave mistakes and faults created quite a clear situation for the masses, too.

"Sincere exposure of the facts, the unity of words and deed, true debates and the clear and convincing stands on questions of principle all rendered it possible that the party's Leninist policy of alliance be realized on new and broad foundations...This, however, called for our launching fight--and the conference really did so--against the sectarian small-mindedness disregarding the masses and the revisionism at first made concessions and then yielded to the class enemy, expressing the principle that all functions, except party functions, can be filled by non-party people, too, if they are otherwise fit for them, also helped to strengthen the party's contacts with the masses."

In his article Miklos Ovari makes emphatic mention of the resolutions the party conference passed in order to strengthen workers-peasant alliance. "By taking quick measures, the party corrected the mistakes committed in the policy towards the peasantry, redressed the grievances and supported the increase of agricultural output by granting various benefits. All this influenced the attitude of the peasantry favorably, and the fact that the party conference did not make any concession of principle and took an unambiguous stand on the future of agriculture did not decrease the significance of this. Moreover, it proved the party's voice...The facts have for long proven the correctness of the party's foresighted stand of principle," Miklos Ovari stresses.

"The party settled its relationship with the intelligentsia on a principled basis, too. Rejecting the views falsely generalizing things and condemning all the non-technical intelligentsia, the party departed from the fact that it is impossible to solve the grave political and ideological problems arising in cultural life by merely administrative means... The party conference resolved that a carefully planned, many-sided and high-standard fight had to be fought under the leadership of the communists working in the cultural field and relying on that part of the intelligentsia which was loyal to socialism."

"Just in the case of domestic political questions, the party conference elaborated an unambiguous and clear stand free of tactical considerations, on international affairs, too," the author of the article writes." It had the courage to oppose the nationalist passions incited by the counter-revolution. It stressed that the firm fraternal unity with the socialist countries was and will remain a decisive condition of our freedom and progress and that there is no true patriotism without proletarian internationalism. Drawing from the lessons of the counter-revolution and the consistent internationalist position adopted by the party conference laid firm foundations for the development of Hungarian-Soviet friendship for a long period of time. And when our party stresses today that communism which is anti-Soviet does not exist, it is led by not only theoretical considerations, but this stand implies all the very concrete experiences it gained in the hard struggle against the counter-revolution," Miklos Ovari writes in his article headlined "On Firm Foundations of Principle" in NEPSZABADSAG.

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SURVEY EXPLORES YOUTH VALUES, IDEALS

Warsaw SZTANDAR MLODYCH in Polish 23 May 77 p 4

[Article by Jacek Marczyński]

[Text] What do you know about the aspirations of youth? The question is rather rhetorical. We know, on the whole, what aims in life our acquaintances Paul, Peter and Elizabeth have, and from this haphazard knowledge, we form conclusions about the whole generation. These conclusions are generally erroneous, for if Paul, for example, values above all independence in forming opinions, should we take this to mean that all members of his generation are equally independent in expressing their opinions? Knowledge about the aspirations of an age-group which is only now entering into adult life is indeed very important from the social viewpoint. It can give us an idea on the values which will be generally embraced within 5-10 years.

Unfortunately, our work up to now has not facilitated answering this question. Work in this respect has only been carried out by us recently, and has such a random character that it does not permit us to make long-range predictions.

We just received the results of investigations carried out by Andrzej Janowski among groups of two thousand secondary school students with varying backgrounds, coming from various environments. One of these groups was comprised of primary school students, and the second of graduates.¹

Values

One of the most fundamental questions posed by Janowski concerned the traits and qualities most valued by youth. A hierarchy of 30 attributes established in this manner clearly showed what youth, upon graduation, value most:

1. Andrzej Janowski, "Aspirations of Youth in Secondary Schools," PWN, Warsaw, 1977

wisdom and knowledge, resourcefulness in living, a happy family life, cheerfulness, love, a strong character, dependable work, feeling of self respect, and friendship. Every one of these factors was mentioned by a fourth of the respondents. The attributes least frequently selected were power over others and solitude.

Without engaging as yet in a more thorough analysis of this list, we must stress one thing--the lack of any clear differences between the value system of graduates and that of their younger colleagues in the primary grades. Naturally, the older ones place more value on love, freedom of opinion and self-respect, but, after all, these are not such fundamental differences in the set of thirty attributes.

Thus, youth come to secondary school with a certain system of values, which they bring with them from the elementary school, already established. Therefore, it is there that the fundamental process of the development of personality is taking place. We have failed to clearly realize this fact up to this time. For it seemed, rather, that this process takes place at the age of 16 or 17.

In analyzing in more detail the list established by Janowski, we can say that youth have unusually strong educational aspirations. Knowledge and wisdom have decidedly taken the first place in this list; long-range interests are also high on the list, having taken 13th place. Moreover, almost all the youth questioned have firm intentions of further study. It's not surprising to see this desire among students in the general education field, but over 80 percent of the students in the technical field also affirm their wish to continue their studies.

And work? It should be dependable. (This attribute ranks in seventh position.) However, work must, first of all, be interesting and provide much satisfaction. It is also of importance that good relations prevail between workers and their superiors. Work should also provide good earnings and, at the same time, insure the possibility of further studies. Independence in work and social recognition for duties performed are mentioned with considerably less frequency; no importance is given to quiet work without stress, and the desire is expressed to avoid, at any cost, being in the position of directing others. "I would not like to be someone of no importance; I want my work to be of importance. But I would not like to occupy any managerial positions," wrote a girl student of one of the Warsaw general education secondary schools.² This is a very significant answer, typical of her peers.

For they probably are aware of the fact that high positions in the professional hierarchy entail renouncements in private life. To this, in their opinion, priority is to be given. Hence, great importance is attached by youth to

². Ibid., p 102

a happy family life and love. For this reason, too, they place more value on self-respect and personal independence than the inclination to help others. There is no way to indifferently pass over the fact that such values as ideology and the desire to fight social injustices are found far down on this list. It is worthwhile, however, to note that in regard to these two values, there are distinct differences in the responses of girls and boys. Whereas ideology is supported by over 11 percent of the responding graduates in general, only 3 percent of the girl graduates declare themselves in support of it.

Investigations of Janowski represent a certain real situation. As the author states,³ the society of the future which can be visualized in the basis of these investigations will certainly strive towards the improvement of its living-standards by setting goals that are possible to attain, avoiding daydreaming and inappropriate reveries. It will value order and honesty in human contacts, solidarity, dependability and conscientiousness in work. Also, even though it will be engaged in acquiring material values, it will certainly preserve a positive attitude towards abstract or spiritual values, of which it most values knowledge and the qualities that facilitate interpersonal relationships.

Parents and educators, and all those who have any influence on the formation of the personality of youths, should derive many important conclusions from this investigation.

Ideals

Who and what form the opinions of the young? The answer to this question was given by the respondents themselves. Parents were ranked in the first place--over 64 percent of the students stated that they owe their opinions to their parents. But that is not a precisely correct answer. For if we could gather data on the mass information media, which was not consolidated by Janowski, into a single group, it would assume first place on this list. If we add to this the fact that over 60 percent assigned first place to books and friends, with peers also receiving much credit, then it appears that there is not much room left for the influence of school.

It may seem apparent that we have a strange paradox here. Janowski has also compiled a list of heroes which youth wish to imitate. Although almost one-third admit they have no personal models, the rest of the youth questioned have been able to identify them. They are, in order of choice: scientists, teachers, sportsmen and social workers. The high place occupied by scientists can be explained by awakened educational aspirations. However, why do teachers occupy second place if the outlook on life is so rarely acquired at school?

3. Ibid, p 254

It appears to be true that students have no high opinion about the school as an institution, for it is, in the first place, occupied with watching to see that students carry their badges, that they are not smoking cigarettes and that their hair is not too long; what is more, the students very often complain that they have neither the opportunity nor the desire to talk to the teachers about their personal affairs. But on the other hand, almost half of the questioned graduates admit that the individual teachers have their respect, and 30 percent of the students were able to single out, from among the educators, several who enjoy their respect.

Surely we should not draw conclusions from these investigations of Janowski that would be too far-reaching. However, it can be clearly seen that youth are aware that the significance of school as formative institution is on the decline. This does not at all mean, however, that this phenomenon should be associated with a decline in the teachers' authority. The fact that this phenomenon is noted by a large number of students is due simply to their personal experiences, which are not always the best.

The thesis concerning the conflict of generations which is sometimes advanced is also a myth. Youth, in the first place, draw their models and designs for life from their own homes and parents and these have a decisive influence on the shaping of attitudes. This fact is also confirmed by the results of our questionnaire, "Father and I."

Half of the students questioned hoped that their future homes would be similar to the homes of their parents.

Youth wish to accept the world of adults, and its structure, norms and models of behavior. The values professed by these youth concern concrete experiences more than abstract ideas. From Janowski's investigations, we can visualize the picture of a realistic generation, without conflicts, which accepts solid work, a moderate measure of affluence and a desire to behave in accordance with its own principles.

Do we wish to have such a generation? Surely this does not indicate as bad a picture of youth as some have, on occasion, tried to create. However, there are some aspects of this picture which we would like to change; for example, the dislike for social usefulness and involvement in matters which do not pertain to the self. This is, however, the effect of definite educational influences, from many sources. For Janowski's investigation has once more clearly shown that the schools cannot be responsible for errors committed by others. They have become a link in a rather long educational chain, and not at all the most important link.

On the whole, we obtained yet further proof of the fact that we are definitely discussing far too rarely the educational models which we should be realizing. Also, in our everyday educational work we don't often ponder what value models the members of a socialist society should be provided with. Quite simply, we rarely ask the question of exactly whom we are trying to raise.

The answer to this question concerns all of us, and not only the schools, as it too often seems, since it is easiest to think that way.

PRELIMINARY RESULTS OF JANUARY CENSUS PUBLISHED

Bucharest SCINTEIA in Romanian 14 Jun 77 pp 1, 3

[Communique issued by the Central Commission for the Housing and Population Census regarding the preliminary results of the 5 January 1977 census]

[Text] In accordance with the Decision of the Plenary Session of the Central Committee of the Romanian Communist Party of 14 April 1976 and the provisions of Council of State Decree No 145/1976, the census of the population and housing, a vast and complex social investigation of special political and economic importance, was carried out all across Romania between 5 and 12 January 1977.

Prepared in minute detail on the basis of the directions of the secretary general of the Romanian Communist Party, comrade Nicolae Ceausescu, the census of the population and housing was carried out using scientific methods and techniques, with strict respect for the principles of our socialist democracy. The county, municipal, city and communal census commissions--under the guidance of the party organs and organizations--carried out a broad organizational activity and guided the field work, ensuring that conditions were right for the correct recording of census data in the census forms and respecting steadfastly the democratic principle of freedom of declaration.

The census of the population and housing is providing essential data necessary for the elaboration of measures for the continuing implementation of demographic policies, the training of the work force and the housing construction program, in close conformity with the objectives of economic and social development of the country and the provisions of the Party Program adopted by the 11th Congress of the Romanian Communist Party.

An eloquent proof of the profound changes registered in the social structure of the country is shown in the fact that, on the basis of the development of industry and all branches of the economy at a sustained pace, during the 1966-1976 period 2,253,500 jobs were created, with basic implications in the growth and strengthening of the ranks of the working class, the raising of the standard of living for the workers and the distribution

of the population according to occupation and branches of activity--profound qualitative changes achieved in the process of forging a multi-laterally developed socialist society.

The remarkable successes obtained in the development of the economy, the substantial improvement of living conditions, the essential advances registered in the field of social-cultural construction and building, the rational and sustained health policy and the entire complex group of measures established by the party for the purpose of raising the standard of living of the people have ensured the carrying out of the party's demographic policy, as reflected in the growth of the population by nearly 2.5 million people compared to 1966 and the evolution of the population at the rates necessary to the economic and social vitality of the country. On 5 January 1977, the population of Romania had reached 21,559,416 persons. This important growth in the population of Romania reflects the level of the birth rate, as well as the increase in life expectancy, which are both elements of special significance for the state of health and vitality of our people and for their optimism and trust in the bright future of our country and their happy future.

The balanced development of all the counties and zones of the country, integral parts of our party's policy regarding the harmonious distribution of the forces of production throughout the entire country, is clearly reflected in the changes brought about in the structure and territorial distribution of the population and work force, the upgrading of the level of urbanization and the profound economic and social transformations carried out in all localities.

The achievement of the vast housing construction program, the intensification of the urbanization process and the advances obtained in the area of systematization of the country and individual localities, have brought about important modifications in the structure and territorial distribution of housing, thus contributing to the satisfaction of the population's demands for living space. Conclusive evidence of the improvement of the population's living conditions can be found in the 39.6 million square meter increase in living space, especially in the urban housing equipped for comfort and having social-cultural complexes that the people need. On the date of the census, there were 9.6 square meters of living space for each municipal and city resident, compared to 8.4 square meters noted in the 1966 census. Likewise, the data of the current census shows the innovating transformations in the life of the villages as a result of the party's policy to develop and modernize agriculture and to accentuate the urbanization process through the even broader efforts to build housing and to effect large scale building projects for the purpose of improving the standard of living of all rural residents.

The results of the census referring to the growth of the country's population, the development of localities, the increase in living space and the improvement of living conditions offer a broad and inspiring picture of

the great successes obtained by our people, under the wise leadership of the party, in the economic and social development of the country over the 11 years that have passed since the last census, making this period truly the most fruitful and prosperous in our entire national history. These successes are, at the same time, an expression of the decisiveness with which the working class, the peasantry, the intellectuals and all workers, regardless of their nationality, work to carry out in an exemplary manner the tasks established by the party for the multilateral progress of socialist Romania and for the increase of its prestige in the world. The changes that have occurred in this period are graphic proof of the sustained concern of the Romanian Communist Party for the continual improvement of the people's standard of living--the fundamental goal of all our party's policies and the supreme reason for all the works of socialist construction in our country.

Table 1. The Changes in the Principle Indicators of the Census of 5 January 1977 Compared to the 15 March 1966 Census

	5 ianuarie 1977	15 martie 1966	(1) 1977 față de 1966	
			Date absolute	In procente
(2) Numărul populației	21 559 416	19 103 163	2 456 253	112.9
(3) Numărul locuitorilor pe km ²	90.8	80.4	10.4	112.9
(4) Numărul gospodăriilor	6 777 760	5 954 535	823 205	113.8
(5) Numărul locuințelor	6 373 185	5 380 299	992 886	118.5
(6) Numărul camerelor de locuit	13 969 785	10 872 820	3 096 965	128.5
(7) Numărul persoanelor ce revin pe o cameră de locuit	1.53	1.73	-0.20	88.4
(8) Suprafața camerelor de locuit — mii mp	188 041	148 454	39 587	126.7
(9) Suprafața camerelor de locuit, pe o persoană — mp.	8.8	7.9	0.9	111.4
(10) din care : — municipii și orașe	9.6	8.4	1.2	114.3

Key:

1. 1977 Compared to 1966
2. Total Population
3. Number of persons per square kilometer
4. Number of households
5. Number of homes
6. Number of rooms
7. Number of persons per each room
8. Surface area of the rooms--in thousands of square meters
9. Surface area for each person--in square meters
10. Surface area for each person--in municipalities and cities

I. The Population of the Socialist Republic of Romania

Through the communique from the 7 June 1977 session of the Political Executive Committee of the Central Committee, the people of our country

learned with satisfaction one of the most important pieces of data of the census: on 5 January 1977, the population of the Socialist Republic of Romania was 21,559,416 persons.

Table 2. Population by Sex From the Data of the 1977 and 1966 Census

		5 ianuarie 1977		15 martie 1966	
		(1) Numărul populației	(2) Structura în %	Numărul populației	Structura în %
(3)	TOTAL	21 559 416	100.0	19 103 163	100.0
	Masculin	10 626 771	49.3	9 351 075	49.0
	(4) Feminin	10 932 645	50.7	9 752 088	51.0

Key:

1. Number of Persons
2. Composition in Percentage
3. Males
4. Females

In the period since the last census, carried out on 15 March 1966, the population has grown by 2,456,253 persons (12.9 percent), at an average annual rate of 1.1 percent, as a result of a natural increase brought about by an average birth rate of 20.8 live births per thousand persons and a decline in death rate. The average life expectancy has reached nearly 70 years.

As an expression of the continuing improvement of working and living conditions for the entire population and of the permanent concern that the party has for the strengthening and welfare of the family, the important growth in the population of the country constitutes incontestable proof of the just nature of the demographic policy that has been consistently promoted by our party in the socialist humanist spirit and in close conformity with the Program of Building a Multilaterally Developed Socialist Society in Romania.

II. The Territorial Distribution of the Population

As a result of firmly carrying out the party's policy regarding the harmonious and balanced development of the counties and zones of the country, in close relation to the demands for the higher use of existing work and material resources in the spirit of socialist equality, profound changes have occurred in the territorial distribution of the population, and in the location and structure of the work force.

Table 3. The Population of the Counties According to the 1977 and 1966 Censuses

(1) Județul	5 ianuarie 1977	15 martie 1966	(2) 1977 față de 1966		(3) Densitatea populației (loc./kmp) la 5 ianuarie 1977
			(4) Date absolute	În procente	
TOTAL	21 559 416	19 103 163	2 456 253	112.9	90.3
Alba	409 634	382 786	26 848	107.0	65.7
Arad	512 327	481 248	31 079	106.5	68.9
Argeș	631 910	529 833	102 077	119.3	92.9
Bacău	667 712	598 321	69 391	111.6	101.1
Bihor	633 082	586 460	46 622	107.9	84.0
Bistrița-Năsăud	286 679	269 954	16 725	106.2	54.0
Botoșani	451 194	452 406	-1 212	99.7	90.9
Brașov	582 858	442 692	140 166	131.7	108.9
Brăila	377 940	339 954	37 986	111.2	80.0
Buzău	508 387	480 951	27 436	105.7	83.7
Caras-Severin	385 617	358 726	26 891	107.5	45.3
Cluj	715 409	629 746	85 663	113.6	107.6
Constanța	608 825	465 752	143 073	130.7	86.3
Covasna	199 051	176 858	22 193	112.5	53.7
Dimbovița	493 492	421 557	71 935	117.1	132.0
Dolj	750 387	691 116	59 271	108.6	101.2
Galați	581 569	474 279	107 290	122.6	131.4
Gorj	348 516	298 382	50 134	116.8	61.8
Harghita	326 302	282 392	43 910	115.5	49.4
Hunedoara	514 498	474 602	39 896	108.4	73.3
Ialomița	372 734	363 075	9 659	102.7	60.0
Iasi	729 234	619 027	110 207	117.8	133.3
Ilfov	780 364	756 622	23 742	103.1	94.9
Maramureș	492 837	427 645	65 192	115.2	79.3
Mehedinți	322 363	310 021	12 342	104.0	65.8
Mureș	605 380	561 598	43 782	107.8	90.4
Neamț	532 096	470 206	61 890	113.2	90.3
Olt	518 768	476 513	42 255	108.9	94.2
Prahova	817 108	701 057	116 051	116.6	174.1
Satu Mare	393 916	359 393	34 523	109.6	89.4
Sălaj	264 417	263 103	1 314	100.5	68.7
Sibiu	481 612	414 756	66 856	116.1	88.8
Suceava	634 002	572 781	61 221	110.7	74.1
Teleorman	523 049	521 478	1 571	100.3	89.1
Timis	696 736	607 596	89 140	114.7	80.3
Tulcea	254 403	236 709	17 694	107.5	30.2
Vaslui	436 874	431 555	5 319	101.2	82.4
Vilcea	414 380	368 779	45 601	112.4	72.6
Vrancea	369 729	351 292	18 437	105.2	76.0
Municipiul București	1 934 025	1 451 942	482 083	133.2	3 196.7

Key:

1. County
2. 1977 Compared to 1966
3. Population Density (persons/square kilometer) on 5 January 1977
4. Absolute Change

For the 5 January 1977 census, the county with the largest population was Prahova, with 817,108 persons. The data from the census shows that five counties (Prahova, Ilfov, Dolj, Iasi and Cluj) had populations of over 700,000 persons at the beginning of 1977. The capital city of the country, Bucharest Municipality (including its suburban communities), has nearly 2 million residents, or 9 percent of the population of the country as compared to 7.6 percent in 1966.

Table 4. Grouping the Counties According to Population

(1) Numărul populației	(2) Numărul județelor	
	5 ianuarie 1977	15 martie 1966
(3) Până la 200 000 locuitori	1	1
200 000—300 000 locuitori	3	5
300 000—400 000 locuitori	8	8
400 000—500 000 locuitori	7	13
500 000—600 000 locuitori	8	6
600 000—700 000 locuitori	7	4
(4) Peste 700 000 locuitori	5	2

Key:

- | | |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Population | 3. Up to 200,000 residents |
| 2. Number of Counties | 4. Over 700,000 residents |

During the 1966-1977 period, compared to the national average rate of growth of 12.9 percent, the greatest increases in population were recorded in the following counties: Brasov (31.7 percent), Constanta (30.7 percent), Galati (22.6 percent), Arges (19.3 percent), Iasi (17.8 percent), Dimbovita (17.1 percent), Gorj (16.8 percent), Prahova (16.6 percent), Sibiu (16.1 percent), Harghita (15.5 percent) and Maramures (15.2 percent).

Compared to the 1966 census, the average population density of the country has increased from 80.4 persons/square kilometer to 90.8 persons/square kilometer. The highest densities were recorded in the following counties: Prahova (174.1 persons/square kilometer (p/sk)), Iasi (133.3 p/sk), Dimbovita (132 p/sk), Galati (131.4 p/sk), Brasov (108.9 p/sk), Cluj (107.6 p/sk), Dolj (101.2 p/sk) and Bacau (101.2 p/sk). The lowest densities were in: Tulcea (30.2 p/sk), Caras-Severin (45.3 p/sk), Harghita (49.4 p/sk), Covasna (53.7 p/sk) and Bistrita-Nasaud (54 p/sk).

III. The Evolution of the Urbanization Process

Our party and state policy for industrialization and the socialist transformation of agriculture has decisively contributed to the development and transformation of localities and to the increase in the level of urbanization of the country. From an economic and urbanistic point of view, the existing cities have been developed, some cities have extended their territorial limits by incorporating neighboring localities and new cities have appeared on the map of Romania.

For the 5 January 1977 census, the average urban population increased by 2,931,000 persons (40.1 percent), compared to the 1966 census, while the rural population decreased by 475,000 persons (4 percent).

Table 5. Urban and Rural Populations

	5 January 1977		15 March 1966	
	Population	Percent	Population	Percent
Total	21,559,416	100.0	19,103,163	100.0
Urban*	10,236,846	47.5	7,305,714	38.2
Rural	11,322,570	52.5	11,797,449	61.8

*For the urban figure, the 1966 census included the populations of the cities and 238 localities attached to those cities (Council of Ministers Decree 1492/1966), but the 1977 census included only the populations of municipalities, cities and suburban communities.

Since the 1966 census, the number of cities had increased by 53 and an important number of cities have grown. As a result of the natural growth of the population and, to an important degree, the movement of persons from the villages to the cities, the populations of the municipalities and cities currently in existence have increased, especially the large and medium sized cities. Today, eight municipalities (Bucharest, Timisoara, Iasi, Cluj-Napoca, Brasov, Constanta, Galati and Craiova) have over 200,000 persons, while in 1966, not a single municipality, except for Bucharest, had over 200,000 persons. Five municipalities have populations between 150,000 and 200,000 persons and another five have between 100,000 and 150,000.

Table 6. Population of Municipalities with Over 100,000 Residents

(1) Municipiul	5 ianuarie 1977		15 martie 1966
	(2) fără comune suburbane	(3) cu comune suburbane	
București	1 807 044	1 934 025	1 368 684
Timișoara	268 785	282 691	174 243
Iasi	284 947	284 308	161 023
Cluj-Napoca	262 421	262 421	185 663
Brasov	257 150	262 041	163 345
Constanța	256 875	290 226	150 276
Galati	239 306	246 501	151 412
Craiova	222 399	249 461	148 711
Ploiești	199 269	254 582	146 922
Brăila	194 633	199 891	138 802
Oradea	171 258	181 709	122 534
Arad	171 110	195 423	126 000
Sibiu	151 120	169 692	109 515
Țirgu Mures	130 051	152 561	86 464
Bacău	126 654	149 769	73 414
Pitești	123 943	165 387	60 113
Satu Mare	103 612	103 612	68 246
Baia Mare	100 992	117 557	62 658

Key:

1. Municipality
2. Without Suburban Communities
3. With Suburban Communities

The populations of 12 municipalities and cities that have experienced a strong economic and social development over the past decade are, today, more than twice as large as in 1966: Balan (2.6 times larger), Slobozia and Rimnicu Vilcea (2.4 times), Motru, Slatina, Vaslui and Plopeni (2.2 times), as well as Mangalia, Zalau, Tirgoviste, Pitesti and Miercurea Ciuc (from 2 to 2.1 times larger). It is of note that among these cities are eight county capital cities. Similarly, the population has grown in significant proportions in the municipalities: Constanta and Bacau (1.7 times larger), Iasi, Galati, Baia Mare and Brasov (1.6 times larger).

IV. The Structure of the Population by Nationality

In accordance with the documents of the 14 April 1976 Plenary Session of the Romanian Communist Party's Central Committee and Article 4 of Council of State Decree No 145/1976, regarding the carrying out of the census on population and housing, and in the spirit of the principle policies of our party regarding the nationality question, each citizen freely declared his affiliation with one nationality or another. The Census Commissions and census-taking personnel ensured that the proper conditions were present so that each person could freely declare the nationality to which he belongs. Of the 21,559,416 citizens registered by the 5 January 1977 census, 19,001,721 citizens claimed Romanian as their nationality, representing 88.137 percent of the population of the country, while 2,557,695 persons (11.863 percent) declared that they belong to other nationalities.

Table 7. Population by Nationality According to the 5 January 1977 Census

(1) Naționalitatea declarată	(2) Numărul persoanelor	(3) Structura în %
(4) Total populație înregistrată la recensământ din care :	21 559 416	100.000
(5) Români	19 001 721	88.137
(6) Aromâni	644	0.003
(7) Macedoromâni	1 179	0.005
(8) Maghiari	1 705 810	7.912
(9) Secui	1 064	0.005
(10) Germani	348 444	1.616
(11) Sasi	5 930	0.028
(12) Svabi	4 358	0.020
(13) Tigani	229 986	1.067
(14) Ucraineni	54 429	0.252
(15) Ruteni	988	0.005
(16) Sirbi	34 034	0.158
(17) Croați	7 617	0.035
(18) Sloveni	707	0.003
(19) Ruși	20 653	0.096
(20) Lipoveni	11 494	0.053
(21) Evrei	25 686	0.119
(22) Tătari	23 107	0.107
(23) Slovaci	22 037	0.102
(24) Turci	23 303	0.108
(25) Bulgari	10 467	0.049
(26) Cehi	7 756	0.036
(27) Greci	6 607	0.031
(28) Polonezi	4 758	0.022
(29) Armeni	2 436	0.011
(30) Alte naționalități	4 141	0.019
(31) Nedecarați	62	*)
(32) *) Sub 0.001%		

[Key on following page]

Key:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. The Nationality Declared | 16. Serbs |
| 2. Number of Persons | 17. Croats |
| 3. Percentage | 18. Slovenians |
| 4. The Total Population | 19. Russians |
| Recorded by the Census, | 20. Lippovians |
| broken down into: | 21. Jews |
| 5. Romanians | 22. Tatars |
| 6. Aromanians | 23. Slovaks |
| 7. Macedo-Romanians | 24. Turks |
| 8. Hungarians | 25. Bulgarians |
| 9. Szecklers | 26. Czechs |
| 10. Germans | 27. Greeks |
| 11. Saxons | 28. Poles |
| 12. Swabians | 29. Armenians |
| 13. Gypsies | 30. Other Nationalities |
| 14. Ukranians | 31. Undeclared |
| 15. Ruthenians | 32. *Less than .001 percent |

All the citizens of the country, without regard to their nationality, having equal rights and obligations, as laid down in the Constitution, dedicate all their creative and work forces to the prosperity of their common homeland--the Socialist Republic of Romania--and to carrying out the wise policies of the Romanian Communist Party for the sustained economic and social development of the country.

V. The Changes in Housing

The development of housing construction, as an integral part of the party and state program to continually improve the standard of living for the population, has materialized in increases, from year to year, in available housing, in the level of equipment in the housing and other elements for living comfort and in satisfying the demands for living spaces of the different categories of the population.

From the data of the census, it shows that, on 5 January 1977, there were 6,373,185 housing units throughout the country, with 2,712,320 in municipalities and cities, 228,452 in suburban communities and 3,432,413 in towns.

Table 8. Housing By Category of Location According to the 1977 and 1966 Censuses

	(1) Anul	(2) Numărul locuințelor - mii -	(3) Numărul camerelor de locuit - mii -	(4) Suprafața camerelor de locuit - mii mp -
TOTAL	1977	6 373.2	13 969.8	188 040.5
	1966	5 380.3	10 872.8	148 453.7
	%	118.5	128.5	126.7
(5) Municipii și orașe	1977	2 712.3	5 962.2	83 590.7
	1966	1 831.5	3 528.6	51 910.9
	%	148.1	169.0	161.0
(6) Comune și comune suburbane	1977	3 660.9	8 007.6	104 449.8
	1966	3 548.8	7 344.2	96 542.8
	%	103.2	109.0	108.2

[Key on following page]

Key:

1. Year
2. Number of Housing Units (in thousands)
3. Number of Rooms (in thousands)
4. Area of the Rooms (in thousands of square meters)
5. Municipalities and Cities
6. Towns and Suburban Communities

During the 1966-1977 period, housing registered a significant growth of nearly 1 million housing units (18.5 percent), with the growth in municipalities and cities totaling 880,800 housing units (48.1 percent).

In all the counties of the country, housing units increased in number in close relation to the economic and social development and the increase in the number of people.

Table 9.

(1) Judetul	1977		(4) Anul 1977 față de anul 1966 în %		
	(2) Număr locuințe - mii -	Suprafața camerelor - mil. mp -	(3) Număr locuințe	(5) Suprafață	(7) Număr populație
TOTAL	6 373.2	188.0	118.5	126.7	112.9
Alba	116.9	3.4	112.6	122.0	107.0
Arad	159.6	5.5	105.8	116.2	106.5
Argeș	193.1	4.9	125.0	134.4	119.3
Bacău	191.5	5.7	117.0	123.5	111.6
Bihor	191.2	5.8	113.1	117.9	107.9
Bistrița-Năsăud	77.5	2.5	110.1	109.0	106.2
Botoșani	136.4	3.5	107.4	115.3	99.7
Brasov	159.0	5.0	131.2	139.0	131.7
Brăila	105.8	3.2	114.7	114.7	111.2
Buzău	156.7	4.6	110.8	117.8	105.7
Caras-Severin	112.4	3.5	114.4	120.6	107.5
Cluj	202.1	6.1	123.2	134.3	113.6
Constanta	163.6	5.3	137.9	142.8	130.7
Covasna	63.6	1.8	120.7	113.5	112.5
Dimbovița	150.9	3.9	116.8	124.0	117.1
Dolj	219.9	6.7	115.6	122.1	108.6
Galati	162.5	4.8	127.2	131.3	122.6
Gorj	112.0	2.8	119.6	127.3	116.8
Harghita	98.3	2.8	122.1	117.3	115.5
Hunedoara	156.9	4.6	125.1	135.4	108.4
Ialomița	109.4	3.3	112.3	123.4	102.7
Iasi	193.9	5.1	121.1	132.6	117.8
Ilfov	226.7	6.6	103.7	110.4	103.1
Maramures	132.8	3.9	124.0	123.0	115.2
Mehedinti	107.1	2.9	113.2	117.5	104.0
Mures	179.8	5.3	115.5	118.3	107.6
Neamt	154.1	4.5	118.3	128.5	113.2
Olt	154.1	4.2	115.1	131.8	108.9
Prahova	242.2	7.5	117.1	135.7	116.6
Satu Mare	109.4	3.3	118.2	122.5	109.6
Sălaj	81.1	2.4	112.4	119.4	100.5
Sibiu	130.7	4.3	115.0	126.6	116.1
Suceava	178.9	5.0	116.0	121.3	110.7
Teleorman	152.5	4.2	108.0	121.0	100.3
Timiș	207.8	7.2	118.0	125.2	114.7
Tulcea	74.3	2.4	116.9	118.0	107.5
Vaslui	130.6	3.4	109.6	115.2	101.2
Vilcea	137.1	3.3	119.8	130.1	112.4
Vrancea	115.4	3.4	113.7	119.4	105.2
Municipiul București	625.4	19.4	138.1	156.2	133.2

Key:

1. County
2. Number of Housing Units (in thousands)
3. Area of the Rooms (in millions of square meters)
4. 1977 Compared to 1966 (in percent)
5. Number of Housing Units
6. Area
7. Population

The growth in the number of housing units is conclusively reflected in the decrease in the level of crowding in housing and the increase in the average size of the rooms per person. For the entire country, the average number of persons per housing unit is decreasing, compared to 1966 (3.3 compared to 3.5 persons per housing unit in 1966): in municipalities and cities, this average has fallen from 3.4 in 1966 to 3.2 in 1977. A significant improvement in living conditions has been brought about by increasing the area of the rooms for each person. In 1977, in municipalities and cities the average space per person is 9.6 square meters, compared to 8.4 in 1966; in towns, the space for each person increased from 7.7 square meters in 1966 to 8.3 in 1977.

The sustained development of housing units and the extension of building and housing projects have ensured an increase in the level of comfort for the people in municipalities, cities and towns.

Table 10. The Changes in Equipment Installed in Housing Units According to the 1977 Census and Compared to the 1966 Census (1966 = 100)

	TOTAL	(1) Municipii si orase	(2) Comune si comu- suburbar
(3) Numarul locuintelor alimen- tate cu apa din re- teaua de distributie	188.2	179.1	295.1
(4) Numarul locuintelor do- tate cu :			
(5) - instalatie electrica	208.2	166.4	273.1
(6) - incalzire prin cen- trala termica sau ter- moficare	434.9	433.5	511.7
(7) - incalzire prin sobe cu gaze	111.1	109.6	118.0

Key:

1. Municipalities and Cities
2. Towns and Suburban Communities
3. Number of Housing Units Supplied with Water from the Water Distribution Network
4. Number of Housing Units Equipped with:
5. Electric appliances
6. Central heating
7. Heating by gas stoves

The above data points out the fact that the number of housing units having electricity has doubled and the number of housing units equipped with central heating has increased by over 4.3 times, providing ever more civilized living conditions for the workers.

In accordance with the decisions of the Political Executive Committee of the Romanian Communist Party's Central Committee, the preliminary results of the census are published, as obtained through the operative centralization of the principle data and information. After definitive preparation,

all the data recorded during the census on the population and housing will be published.

Outlining a grand social picture of Romania in 1977--the year of the centennial anniversary of the independence of our country--the optimistic conclusions of the 5 January 1977 census--a reason for profound patriotic pride for each citizen of the country--constitute an eloquent proof of the justness and realistic nature of the entire policy of our party, oriented consistently toward the sustained development and modernization of the forces of production and the economy and raising the material and spiritual welfare of all workers, without regard to nationality, in close conformity with the vast Program of Forging a Multilaterally developed Socialist Society on the land of our country.

Central Commission for the Census of the Population and Housing

8724

CSO: 2700

ROMANIA

BRIEFS

AGRICULTURAL BANK PERSONNEL CHANGES--The president of the Socialist Republic of Romania decrees that Comrade Gheorghe Badaluta is relieved of his position as first vice chairman of the Bank for Agriculture and the Food Industry. Comrade Ion Cioran is appointed vice chairman of the Bank for Agriculture and the Food Industry. [Excerpts] [Bucharest BULETINUL OFICIAL in Romanian Part I No 49, 15 Jun 77 p 2]

CSO: 2700

END